# The Outlook

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## ANARCHY AND DYNAMITE

The police have little doubt that the death-dealing explosion in a New York City tenement-house on July 4 was an accidental result caused by the unskilled or reckless handling of a terrible engine of destruction, intended to be used for criminal purposes. Three persons were killed outright, and the strange thing, when one considers the force of the explosion and the character of the building in which it took place, is that more were not killed or injured. Arthur Caron, Charles Berg, and Carl Hansen, the men who were killed, lived together in the rooms in which the bomb was exploded. They were all radicals, revolutionists, and Anarchists. Caron was, intellectually, the leader of the group; he was interested in what is called the Ferrer School (named after the Spanish philosophical Anarchist who was executed a few years ago) and in the radical paper called "Mother Earth," of which Alexander Berkman is the editor. All had taken part in the demonstrations and disorders which followed the expulsion of Mr. Bouck White from a New York church, the services of which he interrupted. Caron has been called a member of the Industrial Workers of the World, but the leaders of the Industrial Workers of the World deny this; Joseph J. Ettor, of the Industrial Workers of the World, adds that the Industrial Workers of the World do not approve of dynamiting or violence, and that if Caron took part in the demonstrations of that organization it was as an individual and not as a member. The truth is that in all the recent meetings and troubles brought out by the unemployed agitation and the demonstration against Mr. Rockefeller in connection with the Colorado mine war there has been no close distinction made as between radicals of different associations.

It is reported as we write that the funeral of the three dead revolutionists may be made the occasion of a public demonstration in which these victims of dynamiting will be presented as martyrs to a cause. Unless it be shown that the three men had nothing to do with the making or exploding of the bomb—and under the circumstances such a supposition is practically incredible—the conclusion is irresistible that they were plotting some form of murderous attack, perhaps similar in kind to the Chicago Anarchists' explosion many years ago. Therefore, if the plan of publicly acclaiming them as martyrs is carried out, every one indorsing that view will make himself morally an accomplice after the fact in a criminal conspiracy of an atrocious kind. It is one thing to sympathize with the struggle for industrial freedom and against industrial oppression; it is another thing to commit murder. The real danger in this country is not so much from the extremists who believe that crime is one form of political agitation as from those who fail to distinguish in their sympathy and support between free speech and provocation to crime, and between legitimate agitation for reform and threats of assassination.

## AN EX-AMBASSADOR TO GREECE

The Outlook has already recorded the indiscretions of Mr. George Fred Williams, now happily late Ambassador to Greece. In this issue it has the gratifying opportunity of recording the sudden change in Mr. Williams's public status inferred in the above title. Exactly how this fortunate outcome was brought about is somewhat in doubt. It is enough, perhaps, for us to know that it has been done, and that the credit for its accomplishment presumably belongs to President Wilson. Mr. Williams was the candidate chosen by Secretary Bryan for the important office he no longer fills. From the State Department comes the following announcement regarding Mr. Williams's retirement. As reported in press accounts,



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it is an official paraphrase of a cable message from Mr. Williams containing his resignation:

Mr. Williams requests Secretary Bryan to tender to the President his resignation as Minister to Greece and Montenegro. He says the reason for his resignation is that he cannot comment upon the situation in Albania as he would like under the restraints imposed by his diplomatic position, and that he does not feel that he can conscientiously keep silent with the knowledge which he has of what is being done. He says also that he considers the success of the President more important to the world than all of the efforts of other men, and does not wish to embarrass him, and wishes to thank him for the consideration which has been shown him.

Whether or not Mr. Williams's desire not to embarrass the President was discovered before the President's desire not to be embarrassed by Mr. Williams is, after all, a matter of detail. At any rate, the President was sufficiently embarrassed to telegraph his apologies for Mr. Williams's indiscretions to the European Powers. No one can object to Mr. Williams's sympathy with the suffering Albanians; but every thinking American must cordially share in the President's objection to Mr. Williams's mistaken conception of the function of a diplomat.

### INSURANCE AND SPECIAL LEGISLATION

Senator Jones, of the State of Washington, and Representative Carter, of the State of Oklahoma, are sponsors for a bill recently introduced by them in the Senate and the House which, if enacted into law, would be so unjust a piece of class legislation and so clear a violation of National rights by local and selfish State interests that it deserves widespread public condemnation. The bill provides that no insurance company shall be permitted to use the mails for procuring or effecting a policy of insurance upon persons or property situated in any State of the United States when the said State by its own laws prohibits the company from transacting insurance business within that State. There is only one insurance company in the United States, the Postal Life Insurance Company, that does all its business by mail. This company employs no agents, relying wholly upon letters and circulars to sell its policies. It employs no medical examiners, relying upon the family physician of the applicant for insurance to make the necessary examination. Its endeavor in this way to reduce the cost of life insurance is a commendable one. It has been in business for a number of years; it is successful; and as a corporation of New York State it is regularly examined, and has been given good standing by the Insurance Department of that State. Its contention is that it is engaged in inter-State commerce, and this contention has been sustained by the United States Post-Office authorities. It pays, of course, no license fees or other forms of income to the Insurance Departments of other States. The so-called "old-line" companies which maintain agencies in the several States do pay large sums of money for the right to do this agency business. Naturally, the pecuniary self-interest of the Insurance Departments of the various States would lead them to oppose mail-order insurance and to favor agency insurance, since the latter is a source of income and the former is not. The personal injustice of this bill, which, while framed in general language, is aimed at one particular company, must be apparent to any fair-minded citizen.

### INSURANCE AND STATES' RIGHTS

But there is a still more serious objection to the bill. It is an attempt, through Congress, to establish the superiority of State sovereignty over National sovereignty. It is the old States' Rights doctrine cropping up again. If the Postal Life Insurance Company embodies a bad economic principle, if it is dangerous to the people to have life insurance solicited by mail, or if even while employing a commendable principle the methods of the company are bad, the remedy is not in State action, but in National action, for it is not merely the people of the States of Washington and Oklahoma who need protection, but the people of every State. Should a fraudulent mail-order life insurance company endeavor to transact business through the mail, it could be at once stopped by the Post-Office authorities under what is known as a "fraud order." If Senator Jones and Representative Carter believe that the Federal Government should have greater authority than it now possesses over insurance companies, why do they not introduce a bill providing that any insurance company may take out a Federal license entitling it to do an inter-State business provided it submits its methods and books to, let us say, the Department of Commerce and Labor, and receives a clear bill of health therefrom? This would be a much

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more effective way of regulating the insurance business for the benefit of the insured than to attempt to do it by such unwise State action as the State of Washington is now taking or as New York State did take when it established by statute the maximum amount of business that an insurance company may do in any given year. Inter-State commerce of all kinds should be regulated by the Federal Government and not by the several States.

### THE CHARTER ELECTIONS IN SEATTLE AND ST. LOUIS

The municipal vote of June 30 in Seattle and St. Louis on proposed new charters illustrates the slowness with which large cities are likely to act in adopting advanced methods of city government. The Seattle charter presented included the city manager plan in a modified form; it had been drawn up by a special commission elected at the polls; and it followed a long agitation for an improved municipal system. It was defeated by a substantial majority, and the only thing left for Seattle is to wait and try again, perhaps on a little different plan.

The city manager plan is an outgrowth of the city commission plan, which in one form or another has been adopted by at least three hundred American cities, including New Orleans, St. Paul, and Denver. The city of Dayton, Ohio, is the largest so far to adopt the city manager variation of the commission plan, although many cities and towns in Germany have something very much like it. It may be that the plan is better adapted for small than for large cities. The plan may or may not include a commission, usually of five members, elected by the city at large and taking the place of a common council, whose members are chosen by the several wards and naturally work, whenever possible, for the local interest of the wards. The central idea of the city manager plan is to have a paid expert of some permanency who will "run" the city's work as a business and not as politics. Thus when Sumter, South Carolina, first introduced the plan, the city advertised widely for a manager and picked its man from one hundred and fifty applications made by "municipal engineers" all over the country.

The election in St. Louis indorsed the proposed charter, but by a majority of only a little over two thousand in a total vote of over ninety thousand. Moreover, the new plan is conservative, contains no provision for a commission government, and is a victory for advanced ideas chiefly in the sense that it is an improvement on the unprogressive and old-fashioned charter which was adopted in St. Louis thirty-eight years ago. Nevertheless, it does centralize city control, and it has one radical feature, in that it includes the recall. Within very definite limits it may be regarded as a sign of an awakening progressive spirit.

### THE ASSOCIATED PRESS

The criticisms of the Associated Press do not cease in spite of the spirited defense made by the officers of the Association and by some of the interested newspapers. Our readers will recall the articles by Mr. Gregory Mason and Mr. George Kennan in our issue of May 30. To Mr. Mason's criticisms Mr. Frank B. Noyes, President of the Associated Press, replied in our issue of July 4. Among other periodicals "Collier's Weekly" has taken up the cudgels for the public as against the unlimited power of the Associated Press, and Mr. Melville Stone, General Manager of the Associated Press, has responded with a detailed statement of the reasons that lead him to believe that the fear of this alleged unlimited power is wholly unfounded.

Last, but by no means least, the current issue of the "Atlantic Monthly" contains a remarkable article entitled "The Problem of the Associated Press." The editor of the "Atlantic" states that the author desires to remain unknown. The reasons for this desire are obvious. The article, while written in a temperate and judicial spirit, displays a most intimate knowledge of the history, character, and operations of the Associated Press. The writer apparently does not wish to put himself or the interests with which he is connected at the mercy of the organization which he is criticising.

It will at once be admitted that the criticisms of the Associated Press are not limited to any particular locality or to any particular newspaper or periodical, nor are they actuated by personal animosity. Certainly, so far as The Outlook is concerned, we believe that the Associated Press is a tremendously effective organization; that it performs a public service of great moment not only to the United States but to the entire civilized world; and that its managers and directors in general are desirous of serving the public. But we are equally convinced

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that the Association possesses distinct powers for evil as well as for good, and that the question is steadily becoming more acute whether it is not possible and desirable to devise some method of regulating these powers in the interest of public welfare. It is interesting to note that the debate on the comparative value of regulated combination and free, or, as we prefer to call it, "cut-throat," competition crops up here, as it does in so many other fields of American industry. The "Atlantic" writer in the following words argues for the desirability of making the Associated Press an unlimited co-operative monopoly under Government regulation:

> The news agency is essentially monopolistic. It has much in common with the ordinary public-utility monopoly. It should therefore be treated like a public-utility corporation. It should be subject to Government regulation and supervision and its service should be open to all customers. Were this done the Associated Press would be altered but not destroyed. Its useful features would surely remain and its drawbacks surely be lessened.

### THE LIABILITY OF SHIP-OWNERS

Under the laws of this country if a ship is wrecked, either on a river, lake, or the high seas, the injured passengers and members of the crew or the dependents of those killed in the wreck may recover damages from the ship-owners only to the extent of the value of the ship after the disaster and of the value of the pending freight money. If the ship is lost, the owners are liable only to the extent of the pending freight.

A recent decision of the United States Supreme Court in the Titanic claims cases has served somewhat to call public attention to our inadequate liability laws in admiralty. As the Titanic flew the English flag, the claimants of damages asked the Court to apply the English rule of determining liability, under which the ship-owner is responsible for a fixed sum per ton of the ship's tonnage, irrespective of whether the vessel is lost or not. If this ruling had been allowed, the victims of the disaster could have collected as much as $3,000,000 from the White Star Company, instead of the $90,000 to which they will be limited under American laws.

So far as injured seamen are concerned, they or their dependent families, by the rules of our admiralty courts, can recover nothing for the loss of earning power or support except in cases of actual negligence on the part of the owner, who is not liable for the negligence of the captain or crew. And even where the owner is personally negligent, the claim of the seaman or his dependents is subject to the legal right of the owner to abandon the ship to the claimants and thereby escape personal liability. Thus in cases of wreck there can usually be no substantial recovery.

Writing in the "Survey," Thomas I. Parkinson points out that the present admiralty liability laws of most nations were formed years or even centuries ago, in the face of conditions essentially different from those faced by ship-owners to-day. Voyages were much more hazardous then than to-day, and, furthermore, a single ship frequently represented an owner's entire business investment, whereas much of the shipping of this century is carried on by vast corporations. The Outlook agrees with Mr. Parkinson that the admiralty liability laws of the United States demand radical readjustment, and believes that the following legislative changes suggested by Mr. Parkinson deserve public consideration:

1. An amendment to our liability laws similar to the English rule increasing the owner's liability so that where the owner is liable the persons to whom he is liable may have recourse to some substantial fund irrespective of the condition or value of the vessel after the accident.

2. The extension of the Federal employers' liability laws or future inter-State railway workmen's compensation laws to seamen on vessels in foreign, lake, coastwise, and inland river trade.

### IN MEXICO

Again the farcical form of a Presidential election was observed in Mexico on Sunday of last week. Every one knew that the result would simply register the purpose of the Dictator, Huerta. It had been rumored that his intention was to put in office a man of moderate political opinion who might possibly be accepted by both the factions now at war as a temporary executive, while, according to this plan, Huerta himself would retire and leave the country. Nothing of the kind happened. An almost microscopic vote was cast—not over three per cent of the possible vote in the territory controlled by Huerta. Two or three dummy candidates received a

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few votes; the other voters, as per instructions, cast their ballots for Huerta.

Opinion is now about equally divided as to whether Huerta is on the point of abdicating or whether he will fight the Constitutionalists to the last possibility. The mutiny which broke out last week in the Federal forces near Vera Cruz may have been an indication of Huerta's desperate state; but the indications are that this revolt, like others which have happened in Huerta's army, occurred because of lack of pay and proper treatment.

On the Constitutionalist side of the Mexican situation interest has been centered on the attempts to bring Villa and Carranza into accord. On July 8 it was officially announced that this had been accomplished, and the despatches ended in the odd phrase, "The war will go on in peace." This means that Villa will be given a free hand in his advance towards Mexico City, while Carranza is to be again recognized by Villa as "First Chief." The new Constitutionalist fiat money is to replace that issued by Villa; and there are to be concessions on both sides as to the personnel of the civic officials governing on behalf of the Constitutionalists. Practically Villa is to rule supremely over the territory he occupies and any he may gain by force of arms.

JOSEPH CHAMBERLAIN

The death of the Right Hon. Joseph Chamberlain, a portrait of whom appears on another page, removes from English political life one of the most commanding leaders of the Victorian era. He was born in 1836, of commercial rather than aristocratic parentage, in Camberwell, one of the suburbs of London. When a young man, he migrated to Birmingham, and there amassed a huge fortune as a manufacturer of screws. In his early thirties he was elected Lord Mayor of his adopted city, and under his leadership Birmingham acquired her water and gas and other public utilities, cleared away slums, and pushed through an extensive building programme, the result of which will be to make her one of the most prosperous municipalities in the world.

His success as an advanced municipal reformer was soon followed by pronounced success in the wider sphere of politics. Four years after entering Parliament he was appointed to high office in the Government. Six years later he deserted his Liberal colleagues on the Home Rule question, stating that he regarded Gladstone's proposals as so dangerous that, in order to oppose and ultimately kill them, he was willing to postpone all the political objects which formerly he had nearest his heart. He then formed the Liberal Unionist party, and his hope was that by means of it he would not only be able permanently to defeat Home Rule, but also to achieve his desire to become Prime Minister. At first he labored to make his party one of the two national parties, and often spoke of it as such, but, finding this impossible, he entered into permanent alliance with the Conservatives and became Secretary of State for the Colonies in Lord Salisbury's Cabinet. A day or two before Salisbury's death Mr. Chamberlain was driving in a hansom cab, when the horse slipped on the wet pavement and threw him out. Badly injured, he was taken to a hospital, where he remained for several weeks. The Conservatives during this interval chose Mr. Balfour for Prime Minister, although, had Mr. Chamberlain been actively upon the scene, it is possible that he would have been able to bring about his own selection. From that day forward his power began to wane. Four years later his party in the House of Commons was reduced to the merest handful, and from the recent action of the House of Lords it now seems safe to state that the year of his death will see the final passage of the Home Rule measure, against which he fought so long and so bitterly.

While Mr. Chamberlain can hardly be said to have been successful as a politician, he nevertheless possessed and exercised some of the elements of real statesmanship. Because he was born, brought up, and began life as a middle-class Liberal, it is sometimes said of him that he abandoned his principles and became an aristocratic Conservative from that pettiest of political motives, social ambition. This is not a fair estimate. His business and municipal experience in Birmingham made him a convinced Imperialist. He believed in Great Britain. He passionately longed to see her the dominant power of the world. He opposed Home Rule because he felt that it was a danger to the Empire. He opposed free trade for the same reason, although he advocated an Imperial free-trade federation which would permit the colonies to possess tariff advantages with the mother country from which all foreign peoples should be excluded. His mistake was in believing

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that a statesman or a people can be liberal, generous, and humanitarian in domestic affairs while they are exclusive, selfish, and even bellicose in foreign relations. John Bright, who, like Chamberlain, sprang from the commercial and manufacturing class of Great Britain, was really a greater and more successful imperialist because he instinctively treated strangers as he treated his own family—that is to say, he neither created nor felt any essential difference between the principles of foreign and domestic politics.

### IRELAND IN THE HOUSE OF LORDS

The gravity of the situation in Ireland has been reflected during the last few weeks in the changed attitude of the Unionists in the House of Lords. Until the organization of the Nationalist Volunteers, with the reluctant assent of Mr. Redmond, the leader of the Irish Nationalist party, the Ulster Volunteers were facing a possible conflict with British troops; now they are facing a large force of their own countrymen, and Ireland is thought by many to be an armed camp on the verge of a civil war of the most terrible kind.

This, at least, was the description of the Irish situation made by Lord Lansdowne, the Unionist leader, in the House of Lords when the Home Rule Amending Bill was presented in that house. The Lords had refused to act upon the Home Rule Bill recently passed by the Commons until certain modifications of that bill promised by the Prime Minister were before them in the form of a parliamentary measure; this Amending Bill provides that the electors of each of the nine counties into which Ulster is divided shall decide by ballot whether or not their county shall be excluded from the operation of the Home Rule Bill for a period of six years from the first meeting of the Irish Parliament that will be created under it. Lord Crewe, the Liberal leader in the Lords, in presenting the measure, acknowledged the gravity of the situation, conceded the necessity of providing some degree of exclusion for those who hold themselves unfairly treated by the bill, and intimated that the Ministry might go even further in its desire to bring peace in Ireland. "The bill [that is, the Amending Bill] gives the widest possible latitude for an amendment" seemed to hold out a large olive branch.

Lord Lansdowne characterized the Amending Bill as "shabby and undignified," but said that it was necessary to find a way of escape from a very threatening calamity, and that the Unionists would pass the bill through a second reading and would then introduce amendments affecting the area of the operation of the exclusion provided, the duration of the exclusion, and the government of the excluded area. The Archbishop of York, hitherto a stanch opponent of the Government policy in Ireland, declared that what the country now wanted was, not the rejection of the bill, but a settlement of the question. Irish self-government, he affirmed, is now inevitable.

Lord Lansdowne's speech foreshadowed amendments which the Irish party would probably not accept, but he frankly recognized the great restriction of the power of the Lords and the fact that all that body can now do will be to secure a "breathing space, with the prospect of averting civil war." On July 6 the Lords passed the Amending Bill on its second reading by a vote of 273 to 10. The proposed amendments to the bill will now be taken up.

Now that both parties recognize the near possibility of that appalling calamity, the feeling gains ground that some form of compromise which will create a working basis for Home Rule will be agreed upon.

### AN AMERICAN ADVISER IN JAPAN

In 1856, three years after Commodore Perry landed in Japan, the United States sent Townsend Harris to negotiate a treaty with that country. The first diplomatic American representative in Japan was fortunately a man of high character, clear intelligence, and unfailing patience and tact. He not only negotiated the first treaty made by Japan with a foreign Power, but so completely gained the confidence of the Shogun and his advisers that he became their confidential adviser in their relations with other foreign countries.

Since that day Japan has availed herself in many ways of American counsel and advice, and Mr. Henry Willard Denison, who recently died in Tokyo, had been since 1880 the legal adviser of the Japanese Foreign Office, discharging the great responsibilities of the position with such ability that the statement issued by that Office after his death declares that "the whole Japanese nation joins in the sentiment of thankfulness and indebtedness for the distinguished services

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of Mr. Denison and in the expression of sorrow at his departure."

The American who filled this important position was born in Vermont, educated at an academy in New Hampshire, and studied in the Law Department of the Columbian University in Washington. His knowledge of Far Eastern politics, and especially of Japanese politics, was profound, and among diplomatists his abilities were long ago recognized. He was not only an expert in all diplomatic matters, but a man of cool and clear judgment and also of great tact. His position must have been many times one of great delicacy. He seems never to have failed to command the confidence of the Government he served. His last visit to this country was in 1905, when he came as a legal adviser to the representatives of Japan at the conference at Portsmouth, which resulted in the signing of the treaty of peace with Russia. He was a member of the permanent Court of Arbitration at The Hague, and he had been several times decorated by the Emperor of Japan.

Mr. Denison's position was in many ways unique, and gave him great opportunities of serving not only Japan but his own country. He was a peacemaker in the true sense of the word, because he was a frank, courageous, and high-minded interpreter of one nation to another. The value of his counsel to the Japanese Foreign Office in the important crises through which that country has passed during the last thirty years has been so great that his death is a serious loss to the nation.

### MADAME BRESHKOVSKY

Telegrams from eastern Siberia to the St. Petersburg newspapers state that, according to current reports, Ekaterina Breshkovsky, the "grandmother" of the Russian revolutionary movement, is to be interned for the remainder of her life in Nizhni Kolymsk, a dreary Siberian village of thirty or forty houses situated near the Arctic seacoast, three or four hundred miles west of the island where the survivors of the wrecked exploring steamer Karluk are now awaiting succor.

As it would be impossible for a woman of her age and in her state of health to survive the hardships of the overland journey—two thousand miles on horseback—the Russian authorities, it is said, intend to send her to Nizhni Kolymsk on a trading vessel by way of Bering Strait and the Arctic Ocean.

After her attempt to escape from Kirinsk, in December last, Mme. Breshkovsky was taken to Irkutsk, where she was held in solitary confinement about five months. She was then sent eastward, under a strong guard, and on the 11th of June was reported at Chita, a town in the Trans-Baikal near the head-waters of the Amur River, on the direct route to the Pacific seacoast. If the Russian Government had the courage of its intentions, it would take this indomitable old woman on a gunboat to Herald Island or Wrangell Land, put her ashore with a week's supply of pemmican, and leave her there to perish. It would be quite as effective as sending her to Nizhni Kolymsk, and much more merciful. But the Czar would not feel safe on his throne if this invalid septuagenarian were left at large, even on an uninhabited island in the Arctic Ocean. She must be interned in some place where a police officer with a club can watch her. If she were marooned on Herald Island and left alone, she might escape on a raft and overturn the Czar's Government before the standing army of 2,000,000 men could be mobilized! Is there not some way in which the civilized world can effectively protest against this barbarous treatment of a really great woman?

### THE NEWSPAPERS AND COLLEGE RACES

A cursory reading of the newspapers after the recent intercollegiate rowing races might easily give the average man the impression that the contests were between certain potent beings called "coaches" who placed certain animated manikins in racing shells to execute mysterious movements called collectively a "stroke." Pages in the newspapers were filled with "snappy" accounts of "Courtney's crew," "Rice's boys," or "Wray's pets," and so on through the terms which the average reporter thinks he must use because stories of professional baseball are written in that fashion. In victory the coach is lauded and in defeat he is apt to be anathematized.

Certainly this is scarcely the sporting view-point, nor is it conducive to the best results or to the encouragement of the best spirit in rowing. No less certainly does it bring forth a great deal of nonsense concerning the technical side of rowing, for the man who writes in this way usually has little first-hand knowledge of the sport, but has picked

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up a number of cant phrases with which he baffles himself and his reader.

Because of this perennial tendency of sporting writers, since Yale won at New London, since Pennsylvania made such an unexpectedly splendid fight at Poughkeepsie, and since the Harvard and Union Boat Club crews settled the Grand Challenge Cup at Henley between themselves, we have heard a great deal about the English and the American stroke. It happens that Yale and Pennsylvania were coached by English university oarsmen, while the Henley victors are supposed to be exponents of the American style. The whole question has been fogged by overmuch discussion.

One may consider styles at length, but a neglect of the personal equation will bring any theory to grief. On the one hand, the English are fond of considering style rather than the teacher of the style; Americans, on the other, first think of the coach and then of the style; they assume, as a matter of course, that each coach teaches something different from every other coach—even though the differences are not discernible. This difference is a kind of working hypothesis with most sporting writers. Rowing must seem a bit occult or it will not provide voluminous copy. With the exception of possibly three newspapers, there was hardly an account of the races at New London or at Poughkeepsie which really told anything of the manner of rowing of the various crews. The wise correspondents kept to general terms, the foolish rushed into particulars with disastrous results.

Yet the whole matter of the rowing stroke is quite simple when resolved into its elements and stripped of meaningless terms. The object of a crew is to propel its light ship through the water with the greatest possible speed. When eight men get their craft down a course faster than eight other men, they are rowing well, for they have attained their object. Form in rowing, or in any other sport, merely means the manner or method which is best for the average man. The exceptional leader has usually a form of his own; good, too, because it is successful.

### THE ROWING STROKE

A simple analysis of a rowing stroke will serve to give the essential differences in style and also to demonstrate how much the personal equation enters.

In rowing—only eight-oared shell rowing is here considered—each man has a single sweep about twelve feet long with a blade that varies in width, according to particular fancy, from six and a fraction to seven and a fraction inches. It is not necessary to discuss the matter of oars or the construction of shells. Each oarsman sits on a small seat which slides on brass runners through a distance of from sixteen to twenty-seven inches, as best suits the style of stroke and the leg length of the individual oarsman. His feet are strapped into a wooden thwart called a "stretcher." The oarlocks or thole-pins are supported at some distance outside the shell by iron or steel "outriggers."

To begin a stroke, the oarsman brings his slide up to the end, and, spreading his knees, with arms between, reaches well out with the oar. This is the position for the "catch" or "beginning" of the stroke, which occurs when the oar is immersed in the water. The body then comes to a perpendicular posture, the arms acting merely as attachments to the sweep. As the body comes up, the knees are brought together so that, when the body is upright, the legs are in position for a straight push which carries the seat back over the slide; this is the "leg drive." By the time the legs are flat the body has reached the end of the slide and is going backward from the perpendicular. The arms, which have so far been quite straight, are now brought in until the oar handle touches the chest. This is the "finish" of the stroke. Then the hands are quickly sent down and away to take the oar out of the water, while the wrist nearest the outrigger drops, turning the oar blade for the "feather." Then the body again passes the perpendicular, the oarsman slides back slowly and is ready for another stroke. This is the "recovery."

Such are the elements of a stroke in rowing, and it is the variation of these elementary movements which leads to the different styles. It is obvious that if a man can go very far forward on the catch, drive powerfully through a long slide, and finish well back, he has exhausted the possibilities of rowing. But the man has yet to be born who can do all of these things in the six hundred odd strokes which the usual four-mile race needs. Hence a compromise must be had; the English compromise by a long swing over a short slide, the Americans by a short swing over a long slide—that is, the Englishmen depend more on the trunk of the body and the Americans on the legs for power. This is

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the essential divergence of the two styles. There are other variances, but they are not fundamental.

### THE OARS AND THE MAN

So much for the individual stroke; but the boat contains eight men, and these men must make their movements as one man. Their oars must go into the water at the same moment and must leave the water at the same moment; their power, to be most effective, must concentrate at the same instant; then they must recover slowly and together or the shell will be checked by the sharp adverse force. It is fairly easy to teach the movements of a stroke to one man, but it is far from easy to bring eight men into rhythmical motion. And it is yet more difficult to have these eight men apply their power absolutely together.

The oar performs its most useful work in propulsion at an angle of ninety degrees to the shell; before and after that point a portion of the power is lost "pinching" the shells. Therefore the stroke which brings the force at the middle point is most economical. But here comes the personal equation. Since a crew can more easily be made to work in unison at the beginning of the stroke, a hard catch makes sure of concentrated power. To do the work in the middle of the stroke requires a crew of exceptional men; therefore college eights are seldom safe with such a stroke, although Columbia won this year by being able so to concentrate. But it is not a stroke for the average eight. It can be easily seen that there is no "best" stroke, label it English or American as you will. It is solely a question of fitting methods to men.

### AQUATIC FIRE-FIGHTERS

An etymologist might protest that since a vessel used to spread fire among other craft is called a fire-ship, it is inconsistent to call a vessel that fights fire a fire-boat, but, at any rate, the fire-boat is here to stay and is an increasingly important factor in the fire departments of seaports and lake cities. Contrary to general opinion, the fire-boat's greatest service is rendered on land—that is, in fighting fires in buildings within two blocks of the water-front. Of course, to quench blazes in other craft and to extinguish dock fires from the water-side and prevent their spreading to other docks and to moored vessels the fire-boats are invaluable; but in New York, where they have perhaps been brought to their highest efficiency, it has been found that the majority of fires which the boats can take a hand in subduing are ashore.

The strong point of a fire-boat is that its supply of water is inexhaustible—an advantage that a land fire-engine lacks. In tests held by the New York Fire Department a stream of water of fifty pounds pressure at a nozzle one and one-eighth inches in diameter and having a volume of 291 gallons a minute was pumped two-thirds of a mile by a fire-boat, which was relayed by two ordinary steam fire-pumps ashore.

The best fire-boats are built on the lines of a tug, and, like battle-ships, can direct their "fire" from two or three large "guns" or from fifteen or twenty small ones. Like battle-ships, too, some of the recently built aquatic fire-fighters have a metal mast with a fighting-top, from which a stream may be thrown. Indeed, with its fighting-top and heavy brass nozzles mounted along the decks and on the bridge like rapid-fire guns, the fire-boat might easily be mistaken for an unarmored filibustering gunboat.

Millions of dollars' worth of property have been saved along its water-front by New York City's fleet of ten sea salamanders, and the city has just had built an eleventh craft, the William J. Gaynor (a picture of which appears on another page), named after the late Mayor. This boat, with a pumping capacity of seven thousand gallons a minute, has the power of twenty land fire-engines.

### THE ROAD THAT TAKES THE CHILD TO SCHOOL

Recent investigations of the United States Department of Agriculture have brought out the fact that the condition of the roads in many sections is one of the greatest drawbacks to the improvement of the rural school system. The old-fashioned country schoolhouse with one room and one teacher is no longer adequate to furnish modern education. More elaborate equipment is necessary; nor is it longer considered right to confine a child throughout the day in a crowded, noisy, and perhaps ill-ventilated room in order to give him no more than one hour of personal instruction. But it is obviously impossible to dot the countryside with large, expensive, graded schools, in which the pupils may be under constant and competent supervision.

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The remedy, therefore, is to centralize, to consolidate a number of small, inadequate schools into one large modern institution that will provide a better education at less cost per pupil. This is now being done in several States in which the highroads have been sufficiently improved to permit of it, for the improvement of roads is a necessary preliminary to consolidation of schools. The children have to travel greater distances to reach the new school, and the way must be made easier for them.

To a great extent school wagons which take the children to and from school are now being used to accomplish this. The efficiency of the school wagon depends, however, very largely upon the condition of the roads. Where transportation is difficult, the range of the wagon is so limited that its use is impracticable. As a matter of fact, it has been found that a community rarely, if ever, attempts to consolidate its rural schools unless its roads have first been improved. Then the system is frequently adopted on a somewhat large scale.

For example, seven wagons are employed by one consolidated school in Kentucky in which 265 pupils are enrolled. These wagons bring to the school two-thirds of the pupils; the others, living close by, walk. The school supplies the wagons, but the teams are furnished by the drivers, who receive $40 a month for their services. Another consolidated school situated in the open country in Indiana, four miles from a railway, has an attendance of 94 per cent, and this remarkable record is traced directly to the ease of transportation on good roads.

Attendance such as these two schools enjoy naturally makes possible institutions that differ strikingly from the old log cabin that still does duty in sections where improved roads are unknown. There are, indeed, some five thousand of these log cabins still in use for school purposes in the United States. Contrast these with the consolidated school that receives all the children within a radius of four or five miles, which possesses an adequate library and reading-room, in which carefully graded classes are instructed by competent teachers, and the meaning to a community of improved highroads becomes clear.

Under such circumstances it is not to be wondered at that to almost impassable roads the children prefer the railway track with all its attendant dangers. Inevitably accidents happen. A girl twelve years old, for example, was killed on her way to school in Erie County, Pennsylvania, a few years ago, and two other children in Cumberland County. On another occasion a young girl was caught on a trestle near Latta, South Carolina, and saved from being killed by an approaching train only by the fact that some thirty other children remained on the track, waving to the engineer. This little army readily attracted his attention, and he was able to stop his train in time.

On the other hand, the journey to school may be transformed into a source of pleasure as well as of convenience. In districts in which the best type of paved road has been adopted the children have been quick to see its possibilities. Equipped with roller-skates, they travel on their way with the greatest delight, photographs of them reminding one of the pictures in the geography of Dutch children skating along the canals of trim and immaculate Holland. In exceptionally favored districts in which the distances are great and the inhabitants both progressive and prosperous, automobiles occasionally take the place of roller-skates. But, like the roller-skate, the automobile needs good roads. The relation of good and bad roads to school life is illustrated by three pictures on another page.

### A STRIKING PAGEANT

A very successful and interesting pageant of the "Mohawk Trail" was recently presented in the Hoosac Valley Park, which lies in a valley between Greylock and Florida Mountains, in Massachusetts, and makes a very beautiful setting for an out-of-door play. Through this valley passed the old Mohawk trail which ran through three States, crossed Hoosac Mountain, and followed Deerfield River to the picturesque old town with that name. The part played by the trail in the history of Berkshire was told in a series of dramatic scenes in which nearly fifteen hundred people took part, many of them descendants in a direct line from the original settlers and actors in the historical drama.

The spectators faced a wide stretch of verdure with a charming lake on the right, and at the end a long wooded slope, making the entrances and exits of the actors singularly picturesque. From the moment when the Spirit of Greylock, personified by one of the leading men of the county, a venerable figure in flowing purple, with long white locks, came slowly out of the

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woods leaning on his staff, to the symbolical finale after the return of the troops from the Civil War, the history of the county in its principal incidents was followed with eager attention by large audiences. Indians approached in their canoes across the lake; settlers came on foot and in pioneer wagons; Fort Massachusetts was set up, attacked, and taken; Captain Ephraim Williams, the founder of Williams College, who was later to fall in the conflict with the Indians at Saratoga, was personified by Professor Lewis Perry, of the Williams faculty; the arrival of the settlers, the coming of the little group of Quakers, the call to arms in the Revolution, and various scenes in the life of the locality led up to a charming dramatization of Hawthorne's description of his visit to North Adams in 1838, and his account of Commencement at Williams College, and of the graduation of the Class of 1838, of which Justice Field of the United States Supreme Court and William Cullen Bryant were members. Hawthorne arrived in an old-fashioned stage and was a close observer, apparently, of the Commencement exercises of the college. Transferred from Williamstown to the Hoosac Valley, the college festivity was presented out of doors by more than three hundred people—a very picturesque and charming company in late Colonial dress under a bright sky.

The historical scenes were relieved and the programme varied by poetic tableaux: the Spirits of the Waters, of the Pines, of Romance, and of the Waves came and went; young girls and children in artistic costume floated in and out, seemingly at times blown across the field.

The value of the pageant both as a means of teaching history and of creating community feeling was seen again in this successful presentation of the Berkshire story. People of all positions gave time and work, not only cheerfully, but with enthusiasm, and gained that sense of a common background and an unbroken historical connection which binds communities together and creates community feeling.

The pageant was under the direction of Miss Margaret Maclaren Eager and Miss Elsa Eager; and their very artistic as well as practical effectiveness in arranging and presenting these historical pictures ought to be recognized, as the work of every one who paints a good picture or builds a good building ought to have public recognition. These ladies will have charge of the pageant which is to be presented at Plattsburgh in September at the celebration of the one hundredth anniversary of the Battle of Plattsburgh.

### THE BAPTIST CENTENARY

Baptists celebrated the centennial of Baptist Foreign Missions at the meeting of the Northern Baptist Convention in Boston, June 17–25. More than three thousand delegates from churches in every State and from almost every land gathered to signalize the close of a century of the work of the American Baptist Foreign Mission Society. A hundred and two years ago Adoniram Judson, the Congregationalist, went to Burma, the first foreign missionary from American soil; and that he became a Baptist during the voyage transferred to that denomination the primacy in time in the great enterprise, and laid upon them responsibilities that led to the organization of their first missionary association. The presence of two sons of the pioneer, one of them himself a pioneer in city missionary work, Dr. Edward Judson, of New York, linked the present with the past. More than half a million converts in other lands, and a multitude of missionary institutions for the upbuilding of body and mind, are the product of that initial impulse.

Coming to the Convention session with their missionary societies, home and foreign, almost three hundred thousand dollars in debt, the enthusiasm engendered by the great event they celebrated, together with the encouragement afforded by an unexpected offer of one hundred thousand dollars, caused an outpouring of gifts from the delegates to the Convention which assures the payment of all deficits, and makes it possible for the missionary agencies of the denomination to begin a new century unhampered. The policy of Baptists in missionary lands for the future is to be concentration rather than an ambitious extension, even to the point of relinquishing some of the stations already established that other stations may be strengthened. Co-operation with other denominations wherever and however possible is expected to put Baptists in line with the most hopeful modern developments upon the foreign field.

### CONSTANTINOPLE COLLEGE

Constantinople papers which lately arrived in this country described what was only very briefly described in the despatches—namely,

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the opening of the new buildings of Constantinople College, at or near the Turkish capital.

As is well known, the college has been on the other side of the Bosphorus, at Skutari. It is now on the Arnaoutkeuy Heights, on the European side.

Ambassador Morgenthau made the opening address, and the Minister of Public Instruction, Shukri Bey, replied for the Turkish Government. He was followed by Djemil Pasha, Prefect of the City of Constantinople; and then Mr. George A. Plimpton, one of the leading trustees of the College and Chairman of its Finance Committee, spoke in acknowledgment of the great gifts which have made possible the erection of the new buildings.

As was fitting, these and other speakers eulogized Dr. Mary Mills Patrick, the President of Constantinople College, whose life has in large measure been given to the development of the institution. Dr. Patrick served her apprenticeship in the interior of Asia Minor. She worked at Erzerum, spending her vacation time in traveling about among the people and studying Armenian. In 1876 she came to Constantinople to teach in a Home for Girls which had been established at Skutari, and on withdrawal of the Principal Miss Patrick took her place, so that the institution, now Constantinople College, has been under her care for thirty years.

The dedication of the new buildings is certainly the crowning of a great task, and it was appropriate that by Smith College and by the Ottoman Government President Patrick should be the recipient of new honors. She is already a Ph.D. by right of special work at the University of Berne.

### GREAT GIFTS FOR PUBLIC USES

The distribution of great sums of money from private fortunes for public uses has become so common that the growth of the practice of dividing vast estates with the public has almost ceased to attract attention. Its significance is great, however, and it is an aspect of the service of large fortunes which is often overlooked.

Under the will of Mrs. Morris K. Jesup, who recently died in New York, the sum of $8,450,000 is divided among educational, scientific, and religious institutions. The most interesting and perhaps the most far-seeing of these bequests is that of $5,000,000 to the American Museum of Natural History, an institution which, like the Metropolitan Museum of Art, has not only National but international importance. It has already rendered signal services to education in universities, colleges, and schools, and its great collections are so used as to make it a factor of high importance in scientific study and research. It is gathering materials and carrying on explorations in many fields. It will now be in a position to broaden its investigations of Indian life on this continent and bird and animal life in South America.

The Roosevelt expedition will add five hundred new mammals and about fifteen hundred birds to its collections, and the Museum is planning to send two expeditions to explore the head-waters of the Orinoco and the marshes of Paraguay.

President Osborn recently said that he hoped that one of the first results of the Jesup bequest would be a realization by persons in the city that they should share more largely in the development of this institution. One of the conditions of Mrs. Jesup's gift was that none of the money should be used either for maintenance or for building. The budget which the Museum is sending to the city shows that the trustees are contributing $105,000 to maintenance above the $200,000 contributed by the city. The friends of the Museum have contributed $8,700,000 to it in the last twelve years, while the city has given $3,300,000 for building.

## THE PANAMA CANAL

The Panama Canal controversy is again raging in the public press, fanned into flames by the proposed treaty with Colombia, which contains, if not a direct, at any rate a thinly veiled, apology for the course of the United States in obtaining the right to build the Canal, a promise to pay Colombia twenty-five million dollars in view of all damages, and a provision giving Colombian coastwise vessels the right to pass through the Canal free forever—a right denied the American coastwise vessels by the recent repeal bill enacted with the support of the National Administration. Colombia grants the United States nothing whatever in return; and it is this fact which makes this treaty differ from former treaties proposed and renders it so offensive to a spirit of justice and fair dealing. We think the American people are beginning to get tired of this controversy, but unfortunately they

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must expect to endure it until the great celebration is held next year in honor of the formal opening of the Canal. After that great event it is reasonable to expect that the controversy will die a natural death, or at least will become a mere academic and speculative historical question.

Mr. James T. Du Bois, who was American Minister to Colombia from August 21, 1911, to June 15, 1913, and who negotiated the proposed treaty alluded to above, has recently made a public statement in which he may be fairly said to take the ground that the people and statesmen of Colombia were noble and high-minded men who were grievously cheated by the United States. As our readers well know, Mr. Roosevelt and other members of his Administration when he was President take an absolutely contrary point of view, namely, that the Government of the United States made every patient and possible effort to treat Colombia with justice, and that they were thwarted on every hand by the politicians of Colombia, whose selfish, unreasonable, and illegal action finally drove the State of Panama into rebellion.

We do not here propose to go into the details of this controversy again. Those who are not already familiar with the historical facts and who honestly desire, without personal prejudice, to obtain them will find documents and authorities fully quoted in Mr. Roosevelt's Autobiography which, we believe, fully and completely sustain his position. We have no doubt that the future historians of the United States will sustain it. We only add as to this aspect of the case that in 1903, while Mr. Roosevelt was President, and long before he had formed any connection with The Outlook, we felt so sure that the despotic conduct of the Government at Bogota would force Panama into a state of revolution that we seriously discussed sending a special correspondent to the Isthmus to be prepared to give us a first-hand account of the rebellion when it came.

Nobody questions the fact that Panama did rebel and that the United States Government recognized her independence. Mr. Du Bois bases his criticism of the Roosevelt Administration chiefly upon this recognition, and demands reparation for Colombia because our recognition of Panama was illegal. Let us see what ground he has for this legal contention.

When in any community a revolution takes place and a new government is organized or is proposed to be organized as a substitute for the old government, it is the absolute and unqualified right of every nation to determine whether it will recognize the new government and when and under what conditions it will accord that recognition. Under the Constitution the authority in the United States to determine when such recognition shall be accorded to a new government is reposed absolutely in the President. Says Professor Willoughby in his work on the "Constitutional Law of the United States:" "The recognition by the United States of a status of belligerency, or the recognition of the sovereignty or independence of a foreign government, are political acts not subject to judicial review, and are performed by the President."

When, therefore, President Roosevelt recognized the Panama Republic, his act was the act of the American Nation. He was authorized to determine the question whether Panama was an independent republic or not. The justice of his determination cannot be called in question by the courts nor by a succeeding Administration. The American Nation has by its proper Constitutional authority recognized Panama as an independent nation. All its dealings concerning the Canal after that recognition must necessarily be with Panama. In recognizing Panama the Nation acted in accordance with its unquestionable rights—rights recognized by the established principles of international law. To propose any payment to Colombia now is either to deny that America had the right to recognize Panama or else to deny that the President had the right to act for America. The claim of Colombia for damages against the United States is as if Great Britain had demanded of the Bourbon régime in 1814 damages from France because France recognized the American colonies in 1778. Quite irrespective of the question whether our action in 1903 towards Colombia and Panama was wise or even just, Colombia has no claim on the United States and no cause which can be proposed for arbitration.

In our judgment, the act of the United States and the act of President Roosevelt on behalf of the United States was both just and right. But whether it was just and right or not, *it was final*, and can no more be legally reversed, set aside, or discarded than can a decision of the Supreme Court of the United States be set aside or discarded

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by an Administration which is not pleased with it.

## THEODORE ROOSEVELT AS A JOURNALIST

Journalism and literature have some aspects in common. But they are radically different. The essayist is an artist; the journalist is not. He has neither time nor inclination to be artistic. Robert Louis Stevenson could never have been a journalist. Horace Greeley could never have been an essayist.

The journalist must be a man of affairs. He must be interested in what is going on. He must have a fellow-feeling with all sorts of men, must know how and what they think, and must think with them. He must know what interests them—if his periodical is a daily what will interest them to-morrow morning, if a weekly what will interest them next week, if a monthly what will interest them next month. He must know his subject better than his readers, but not so much better that he cannot understand their thought or want of thought. If he does not understand them, they will not understand him. If he is a special editor, as of an art or musical or medical or geographical journal, he may know only his specialty. But if he is the editor of a general periodical, he must have an interest in and some knowledge of all current topics. He need not write elegantly, but he must write clearly and forcibly—write so that he who runs may read. He may write superficially, indeed he often must write superficially, for he writes for a constituency who when they are reading his writing are not in the mood for profound thinking. But he must think thoroughly, else his writing, not rooted in principle, will lack stability, and his journal, though it may be clever, will not be influential. He must not be repetitious, and yet he must not be afraid of repetition. His writing will be read in the street-cars, the office, at the breakfast-table, when the reader has no inclination for careful reading. The editor's ideas must be driven into the heads of careless readers as a nail is driven into wood by repeated blows of the same hammer on the same nail. The modern journalist must be an adept in team work. He is a member of a team. His journal is not the expression of his individual opinion; it is the expression of his staff, in some sense of his constituents. He interprets his readers to themselves, formulates their thoughts for them. He may plant some seed thoughts in their minds, but much more he develops in their minds undeveloped thoughts that are already there. Therefore he must know how to give and take, to take as well as to give, and must be able to modify his own thinking, both in form and in substance, in order to think with his staff and to think with his public. He cannot think for them unless he thinks with them.

On the 7th of November, 1908, The Outlook announced that on Mr. Roosevelt's retirement from the Presidency, in the following March, he would be associated with The Outlook's staff as a Contributing Editor; that he would be more than a mere contributor; that his headquarters would be at the Outlook office and his position analogous to that of a consulting engineer in a great undertaking like the Panama Canal. Three weeks after his retirement from the Presidency he sailed for Africa, but he had already written and left behind nine or ten editorials, several of them written while he was still in the White House. None of these editorials was on party politics; several of them had no relation or only a remote relation to politics. It was characteristic of his mind that while still President he began to turn from his old to his new vocation. The announcement that the editorial control of The Outlook would remain unchanged, and that interest would be added to our pages by frank discussions occasionally between The Outlook and its distinguished associate, was illustrated by one of Mr. Roosevelt's earliest editorials. Two articles appeared simultaneously on Tolstoy, one by Mr. Roosevelt, one by myself, giving different though not antagonistic views of that enigmatical reformer.

The promise of this beginning has been fulfilled during Mr. Roosevelt's association with us. He has written on party politics, foreign affairs, social ethics, literature, education, philosophy, theology, religion. These contributions have not been essays; they have been editorials. They are to be measured not merely by their literary excellence but by their journalistic value. Frequently he has contributed something which was distinctively artistic and literary. Of this, the chapter on "Outdoors and Indoors" in his Autobiography is perhaps the most striking illustration; but other illustrations are afforded, not only by the general character of his Autobi-

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ography, by such articles as the three describing his Arizona experiences in 1913, by his editorial entitled "Dante and the Bowery," and by his paper on "History as Literature," but also by occasional eloquent passages in single editorials. But in the main his writing for The Outlook has been that of a journalist, with the directness, the positiveness, the concreteness, and the repetition of idea and even of phrase which are essential characteristics of the best journalistic writing—written not only for the man in the street, but so written that it can be read in the street. The academician criticises such writing because he classes journalism with literature and tests both by the same standard. But good literature is rarely good journalism. Says Walter Bagehot:

> What a transition from the student of former ages—from the grave man, with grave cheeks and a considerate eye, who spends his life in study, has no interest in the outward world, hears nothing of its din, and cares nothing for its honors, who would gladly learn and gladly teach, whose whole soul is taken up with a few books of "Aristotle and His Philosophy"—to the merchant in the railway, with a head full of sums, an idea that tallow is "up," a conviction that teas are "lively," and a mind reverting perpetually from the little volume which he reads to these mundane topics: to the railway, to the shares, to the buying and bargaining universe! We must not wonder that the outside of books is so different, when the inner nature of those for whom they are written is so changed.

For thoughtful readers in the parlor or the library there is still literature. But democracy has added a new class of readers, or rather let us say a new kind of reading, and for them it provides not literature but journalism. Mr. Roosevelt has somewhere said that books are written to be read; therefore it is an essential qualification of a good book that it be readable. That Mr. Roosevelt's articles have been readable is demonstrated by the fact that they have been read, quoted, and commented on from the Lakes to the Gulf and from Sandy Hook to the Golden Gate.

But Mr. Roosevelt has been more to The Outlook than a contributing editor; he has also been a consulting editor. He understands team work, and has shown himself always ready to take his place and play his part in the team. To make this clear a brief explanation of The Outlook's method is necessary.

Once a week the editorial staff of The Outlook meets in a conference which may be compared to a faculty meeting in a school or college. In this conference the topics to be treated in the forthcoming issue are discussed. Some of them are passed by with brief mention and assigned to a member of the staff for treatment. Some of them are threshed out in a prolonged discussion, in which every point of view is presented with freedom. For while the staff is a unit in spirit, it is composed of individuals with very individualistic convictions. When the discussion is closed, the topic is assigned by the editor-in-chief to that member of the staff who takes the view which the editor decides is to be the view of The Outlook. At the close of this conference the staff adjourns for luncheon, and generally invites some guest who will be willing and able to give it illumination on some subject of public interest. At these luncheons we have had Socialists and individualists, Democrats, Republicans, and Progressives, labor men and capitalists, conservatives and radicals, suffragists and anti-suffragists, Jews, Christians, and agnostics. The object is not to debate, but to learn; not to convert or be converted, but to look at life through other eyes than our own.

Mr. Roosevelt has habitually attended these conferences and these luncheons. He has taken part as a member of the conference in the discussions and been equally ready to give his ideas or to listen to and consider the ideas of his associates. He has proved himself as able to take as to give. He has often brought before the staff the topic on which he was planning to write, that he might get the views of his associates upon it. At the luncheons he has often proved himself a skillful examiner, equipped with that peculiar power which makes a truly great teacher—the power to draw out from others the frankest expression of their convictions. To say that he is as eager as a boy to get a correct understanding of tempers and opinions antagonistic to his own would be to impute to the boy an eagerness for such learning which few boys possess. No doubt Mr. Roosevelt is a fearless fighter; but he is also a remarkable harmonizer and a remarkable interpreter.

During the five years of Mr. Roosevelt's association with The Outlook he has always consistently taken his part as one of the staff in this team work. In not a single instance has he endeavored to determine the policy of The Outlook by using that authority

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which his National and international reputation gives to him. No member of the staff has been more loyal to the authority of the chief than he. The sedulous attempt in certain quarters to make it appear that he has controlled the policy of The Outlook would have been an occasion for irritation had we not found in it an occasion for laughter. A recent illustration—one of many—may suffice here.

Mr. Roosevelt sailed for South America last October, before the Mexico imbroglio had developed into serious proportions; returned in May; dropped into the Outlook office to give greeting to his associates; spent fifteen or twenty minutes in telling us something of his South American experiences; had no time or opportunity for any conference on editorial subjects; and sailed the next week for Spain. While he was gone where communication with him was impossible, The Outlook published an editorial entitled "Why?" in which it took the ground that the failure of the present Administration to give either prosperity at home or true peace abroad was due to the Democratic doctrine that a strong government is perilous and a weak government is safe. And from all over the country came back echoes attributing it to Mr. Roosevelt or to his dictation. The truth is that Mr. Roosevelt never saw the editorial till he saw it in The Outlook on the steamer during his return trip, and never was consulted about it or about the topic of which it treated.

When Mr. Roosevelt came on the staff of The Outlook in 1909, we hoped, as he hoped, that journalism would be his future vocation. Events have made that impossible. Because it is impossible he retires from the staff. The truth and the whole truth respecting the reasons for that retirement was told in the correspondence published last week. The entire staff of The Outlook—clerical, business, and editorial—welcomed him with admiration as a great man; five years of association with him have made them love him as a friend. The editorial staff will miss his illuminating and inspiring presence in their conferences. We hope to get his occasional counsels on National and international topics, and we shall continue to give to our readers, in the special articles which he will from time to time contribute to these pages, an expression of his views on important political and social questions.

LYMAN ABBOTT.

## NATIONAL PROHIBITION AND A CONSTITUTIONAL AMENDMENT

There are two methods of Constitutional amendment by which the people of the Nation can make the National will felt. One is direct, the other, in a sense, indirect. The most striking example of the first method is contained in the Thirteenth Amendment, which reads: "Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude . . . shall exist within the United States or in any place subject to their jurisdiction." An example of the indirect method is contained in the Sixteenth Amendment, declared in force in February, 1913. This amendment, it will be remembered (unpleasantly by some), empowers Congress to lay and collect taxes on incomes. It does not in any way state that taxes shall and must be collected on incomes. While the method employed by the Thirteenth Amendment can be more than justified by political necessity, the method used in the income tax amendment is that which The Outlook believes most generally advisable.

A constitution should deal with the division, the definition, and the delegation of power and responsibility. A constitution is a wagon for the transportation of legislative produce. Too often in recent years men have confused the function of carriage and cargo.

This can be illustrated, perhaps, by a remotely impossible fable. Let us suppose that the people of the United States should decide that the growing of potatoes was detrimental to the public welfare. Let us say further that it was proposed to enact a Constitutional amendment which should prevent for all time the planting, harvesting, and marketing of all friends and relatives, even to the fourth generation, of this delectable Andean emigrant. How should this amendment be framed? Two methods would be open for popular choice. The first would be a direct prohibitory amendment prescribing the method by which the desire of the people should be put into effect. This has been the method of procedure adopted by some of the newer Western States for the solution of legislative problems. The second course would be to pass a Constitutional amendment granting to the Federal Government power to control the production, sale, and importa-

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tion of potatoes. This has been the method of procedure pursued by the United States from the beginning of our history, with the exception of the Civil War period.

Naturally enough, potatoes are not in any danger of legislative extinction, but the principles involved in this supposititious case are closely applicable to an amendment now under consideration by a committee of Congress.

It is proposed to prevent, by the direct or indirect means of a Constitutional amendment, the future production, importation, and sale of alcoholic beverages.

Believing as it does in a broader democratic responsibility, The Outlook advocates the submission of an amendment to this effect to the people of the United States.

Believing as it does in the centralization of power to deal with National problems in the National Government, The Outlook hopes that an amendment to this effect, if submitted to the several States, will be accepted by them.

Believing as it does that the function of a Constitution is the definition, division, and delegation of power, The Outlook is convinced that this proposed change in the Constitution should be cast strictly in the form of the present Sixteenth Amendment, namely, "The Congress shall have power . . ."

The Outlook believes that the liquor problem, so far as Constitutional amendment is concerned, should be approached by the method and in the spirit of the Sixteenth rather than the Thirteenth Amendment.

In other words, while we are not prepared to say that the time has yet come for National prohibition, we are prepared to say that Congress should have the Constitutional power to enact a prohibitory statute.

## NOT THE RIGHT WAY

If newspaper reports are to be trusted, the possibility of the bringing of four hundred Japanese from California and their distribution on farms in Michigan has started an agitation to secure the enactment of a law excluding Japanese from that State. It is difficult to imagine what danger four hundred Japanese laborers, distributed over a group of farms, would bring to the great State of Michigan; although the Secretary of the Board of Agriculture is reported as saying that he sees great danger to the Michigan farmers in this movement. The president of an agricultural college is also reported as sharing this view. The President of the Detroit Federation of Labor is also reported as saying that the unions will join in any effort to prevent the introduction of Japanese labor into the State.

It is greatly to be hoped that the people of Michigan will treat this matter dispassionately and in the right spirit. That the immigration of Japanese laborers ought to be controlled and restricted is a proposition which has the assent not only of this country but of Japan. In that country the proximity of Korea and China makes it necessary to restrict what might be a flood tide of immigration which would seriously disturb the industrial and economic conditions of the country, and the Japanese rigidly regulate that immigration.

The difference in economic conditions is so great that neither from Japan into America nor from America into Japan would a great incursion of laborers be either desirable or safe; but the regulation of immigration is pre-eminently a matter for National settlement, not for State legislation. Our Government is already in a very embarrassing position because of the so-called anti-Japanese legislation in California. The questions at issue are delicate and perplexing. They ought never to have arisen, and they would never have arisen if the controversy had been diplomatically handled through the Department of State.

The Japanese laborer is not an isolated person. He has behind him a powerful Government, an able and sensitive nation. He comes from a part of the world that is rapidly rising in power and influence. His presence raises not a local but an international question—a question which is likely to become one of world-wide importance. In dealing with it, it is necessary not only to face the facts in local communities, but to recognize the greater issues of the future; for in the next twenty-five years the relations of the West and the East are to be matters of paramount importance in the prosperity and peace of the world.

The matters in issue must be determined by the wisest and most disinterested statesmanship, and no State, by selfish independent action, ought to complicate the situation. The interests of every State can be, and ought to be, properly protected by the Federal Government.

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## HARVARD OARSMEN AND THE HENLEY SPIRIT

In the general shifting of cups between England and the United States the Grand Challenge Cup of the Henley Royal Regatta, recently won by the junior eight from Harvard, came to the United States at a time when the International Polo Cup had just settled down in a comfortable resting-place upon an English sideboard. This is not the first taste the "Grand," as it is affectionately known to English oarsmen, has had of foreign travel, for the plate has been thrice across the Channel into Belgium, and once down into New South Wales. Never before, however, has it visited the United States.

The Grand Challenge Cup for eight-oared shells has always been most particularly coveted by American oarsmen and has been regarded as the most important trophy of what is historically the most important regatta in the world. And yet this race and this cup are not "international" in the sense in which that word is generally accepted in this country. The Polo Cup is frankly for the best teams of the nations; the Davis Cup in tennis brings out a real national tournament, the winners of which must best the entire tennis-playing world. But the Grand Challenge is in essence merely an event in a historic well-ordered regatta chiefly remarkable for its excellence and the spirit of the contestants.

The Henley Regatta is first of all a season of fun for the competitors and the spectators; many of the oarsmen make the fortnight of training their vacation for the year; they like the flavor of sportsmanly competition without too much of the gravity of contest. And, since they intend to keep Henley in its present status at all odds, they make rules that do not touch the English oarsmen, but which do interfere with the habits of some of our own crews.

It is this phase of the Henley Regatta which the American people, and particularly the newspapers, seldom understand; any event which brings in crews or teams of diverse nationality must be dubbed "international." If John Smith, an American, plays a game with John Jones, an Englishman, the meeting is "international," although Smith, as a matter of fact, represents merely Smith, and Jones is Jones. The credit and the prosperity of the nations are not involved.

The Henley stewards will not have their regatta turned into a training camp; they will not have undue importance given to races, nor will they have the man who rows as a pastime crowded from the course. They discourage the formation of "star" crews; the Leander Club, for instance, includes in its membership all of the university oarsmen of England and could win at will, but it would rather have the members row with their colleges and divide the cups.

The recent American victory at Henley is important because the crew of the Union Boat Club of Boston, composed of Harvard graduates, and the second crew of Harvard University were the only American crews that have ever entered the Henley Regatta in the true spirit of that competition. There is nothing international in the winning; it does not mean that American oarsmanship is better than English or that the decadence of England upon the water is assured. The victory means simply that two American crews were faster than certain crews representing clubs of England, Germany, and Canada which rowed together on the Thames in July, 1914. The victor is entitled to the greatest of credit; the achievement is glorious to every American sportsman; but the perspective must be kept.

Harvard and the Union Boat Club sent their entries without the slightest thought of representing America; the status of Harvard as a second crew and not as a university eight and the defeat of the Union Club at the American Regatta at Philadelphia in May ought to be enough to destroy the representative illusion. These two crews made the voyage because the members thought it would be rather good fun to row at Henley. They paid their own way, and they had no real expectation of winning; on paper they had not the slightest chance to win, and they could not have won had the English rowing men thought of them as national representatives. The men went over in the best sporting spirit and they were met in the same spirit. Leander did not extend itself to gather an exceptional eight, and devoted no extra time to training; indeed, the Leander boat was much less powerful than usual, while the metropolitan clubs of London have not been really fast for some years. The regatta went on in its own jolly way, and, as it happened, both the American eights came through to the finals; then they had a private competition of their own to determine the safest place near Boston to keep the cup. As a result, for the next

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year the cup will be domiciled in Cambridge.

Former American entries at Henley have not been so welcome because the crews have gone over solely to win and have taken with them the serious training methods which are now becoming obsolete. Columbia won the Steward's Cup for four-oared shells back in 1878. Various "champion" club fours and eights, of more or less suspicious amateurism, have had their tries or have been refused entry. Three college eights—Yale, Cornell, and the University of Pennsylvania—have rowed for the "Grand."

The Union Club and Harvard entered to have a good time; they had a good time and they won. And perhaps their victory will drive home the thought that laborious and excessive training is not always the best training.

# THE RUSSIAN PEOPLE: REPRESSION AND OPPRESSION

## A DISCUSSION IN LETTERS

*Why do the Russian people endure oppression if they are brave and liberty-loving? After reading Mr. George Kennan's story "The Sacrilegious Fox Hunt," in The Outlook for April 25 last, one of The Outlook's staff, in writing on other matters to Mr. Kennan, put that question. Out of it grew, with no idea of publication, the correspondence that follows. It has seemed that the discussion would interest readers generally; and, with the permission of the two writers, the letters appear below. Mr. Kennan's letters are signed "G. K.;" his correspondent's letters are signed "O."*
*—THE EDITORS.*

YESTERDAY, while reading a remarkable volume of essays recently published by Lord Cromer, best known as the great Egyptian administrator, I came across an interesting brief paper on Russian character. Lord Cromer quotes a French saying which struck me. I do not recall the exact French phraseology, but it may perhaps be freely translated as follows: "It is impossible to reason about the Russians; one can only believe in them." This made an impression on me because it expresses my own hitherto unformulated attitude of mind. How can a people become great in the history of civilization among whom is tolerated such barbarous injustice as you have portrayed in the "Fox Hunt"? And yet somehow or other I believe that some time in the future Russia is going to be one of the great and splendid countries of the world. O.

You are perfectly right in believing in the Russian people, and in anticipating a great future for them; but it isn't quite accurate to say that they "tolerate such injustice" as that described in my "Fox Hunt" story. They tolerate it only in the sense that a Negro slave in South Carolina might have been said to tolerate the sale of his wife and children to a planter in Louisiana. The Russian people are not free; and the word "toleration" implies liberty of action, as well as indifference to an existing state of affairs. An overwhelming majority of the Russian people, if they had been perfectly free to act, would have sent into penal servitude, not the fox-hunters, but the officials, priests, and judges who were responsible for the barbarous injustice of which the fox-hunters were the victims. In the unsuccessful revolution of 1905–6 probably fifty thousand Russians died and three times as many went to prison or to Siberia while attempting to overthrow the Government which not only tolerated such injustice but encouraged and rewarded it.

In Korea, only fifteen years ago, more than ten million peasants were almost literally at the mercy of less than one hundred thousand officials and gentry. The same state of things exists, or recently existed, in Mexico, and still exists in Russia. It is an error to attribute to the people the wrongs, cruelties, and outrages which result from the oppression of the people by a relatively small governing class. The peons of Mexico might be peace-

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ful, orderly, and progressive citizens if they were treated with justice, and had land, education, and freedom, or even a chance to get them. The disorder there is not the result of "toleration;" it is rather a protest against intolerable conditions for which the people are not primarily responsible. The assassinations, expropriations, *pogroms*, and violent crimes of all sorts which have given the Russians a reputation for exceptional savagery are not the outcome of exceptional savagery in character, but rather the product of social and governmental conditions which excite abnormal reactions in characters that have been abnormally and artificially warped.

G. K.

The Russian people are not free because they are oppressed, and they are oppressed because they are not free—that is to say, if they had a real sense of their freedom of will their revolutions would be more successful than they have been. The Mexican peons are certainly making a pretty brave effort to overthrow the small oligarchy that has controlled them. If the hundred million people of Russia would select good leaders and follow them implicitly, they could probably throw off the yoke, could they not? It seems to me that there is some justification for saying that there is a spirit of indifference in Russia which the brave revolutionaries like Kuropatkin and Madame Breshkovsky have to fight, on the one hand, just as they have to fight despotism, on the other.

O.

Yes, the question of Russian tolerance of oppression is debatable, and there is much to be said on your side of it. You may fairly argue, for example, that when the Russian people were put to the test of trial they seemed to show either indifference or weakness. When the Deputies elected to the First Duma left their homes for St. Petersburg, hundreds of thousands of peasants—in some cases thirty thousand in a single place—escorted them to the railway stations, singing revolutionary songs and shouting that in the struggle for freedom they would stand by their chosen representatives "to the death." And yet when the First Duma was forcibly dissolved, and its members reassembled in Finland and issued what was known as the "Viborg Manifesto," asking the people to offer merely passive resistance to the Government by refusing to pay taxes or render military service, those same peasants were mute, and did not even make an attempt to stand by or encourage their representatives.

Scores of thousands of men, it is true, *did* fight, but tens of millions did nothing whatever. Even the revolutionary part of the peasant population—an overwhelming majority—failed to support the revolutionary movement. When it came to the test of action, ninety-nine revolutionary peasants out of every hundred weakened or backed down. Now this undeniable and unquestioned fact may seem to prove absolutely your contention; but this is by no means a complete presentation of the case. When you come to look at all the facts, it isn't so simple. Here are a few considerations that may tend to weaken the "tolerance-or-indifference" explanation of Russian behavior:

*1. History.* In order that oppressed men may fight with courage and resolution for their freedom, they must have a feeling of self-reliance, based on a consciousness of *some* power, and on a past history in which there have been at least *a few* victories. In almost every country in the world, including even China and Mexico, the people have had, at some time, a little power, and have been encouraged by at least a few successes. When, therefore, they rise in rebellion, they feel that they have, if not a good fighting chance, at least *some* chance of winning. A man may get up and renew the contest after he has been knocked down once, possibly after he has been knocked down ten times; but will he do it with any spirit after he has been knocked down one hundred times in succession?

Since the overthrow of the republics of Novgorod and Pskof by Ivan the Terrible the Russian people, in their conflicts with authority, have not won a single decisive victory. There have been hundreds of rebellions, general or partial, but every one of them has been put down with iron and blood. Not to go further back than 1905, the people extorted from Nicholas II the "Freedom Manifesto;" but it became a dead letter in less than three months. They obtained two representative Dumas, but the Government forcibly dissolved them both, imprisoned a large number of their members, and then changed the election laws so that it could, and did, pack the legislative chamber with a majority of its own supporters. By means of martial law, wholesale executions, punitive expeditions, and more than a hun-

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dred *pogroms*, it terrorized the whole population and quenched the fire of revolution with blood before it had fairly burst into a blaze. Scores of thousands of Russians continued to fight, in a spirit of desperation rather than with a hope of success; but nearly four thousand of their leaders were shot or hanged, while tens of thousands more were sent into exile or penal servitude. I have not taken time to verify these figures precisely for the purposes of this letter, but they are not exaggerated. I have the accurate statistics at hand.

Now, the feeling that comes over a people when it mentally reviews such a history as this is a feeling, not of indifference or toleration, but of absolute hopelessness. It yields to and endures oppression just as a man who has been lost in the woods yields to and endures bad weather—"tolerating" intense cold or a snow-storm, not because he is indifferent to it, but because he feels powerless to change the atmospheric conditions.

*2. Heredity and transmitted feeling.* The courage and resolution of a man are greatly affected by inherited or transmitted feeling. If his ancestors for many generations have been discouraged or intimidated by a particular kind of danger, he himself acquires a dread of that danger, partly through physiological inheritance and partly through parental transmission by word of mouth. In the course of my life I have known a good many men who, while generally brave, were more or less afraid of one particular thing, or more or less cowed by one particular form of peril. Abaza, the Russian who headed my first Siberian expedition, was a man of this type. In one particular field he was irresolute and timid, while in every other field he was as brave, self-possessed, and intrepid as any man I ever knew. This was the first case of the kind that I noticed, but since then the fact has become familiar to me through observations in all parts of the world. Many men, perhaps most men, even of our Anglo-Saxon stock, act less resolutely and efficiently against one form of hostile force than against another form. They dread certain things, but at the same time they face boldly certain other things that are equally perilous. I have various theories to explain this psychological phenomenon, but, without going into them, I limit myself here to a bare statement of the fact.

Now, the average Russian peasant stands in dread of authority. He can be faced down and intimidated by an official who has the backing of the Church and the Czar, while he could not be faced down by a mob, a battery of machine guns, or an army of enemies in the field. Here the reasons are obvious. His ancestors for a thousand years have been subject to authority, and dread of authority is in his blood. Authority, moreover, has always had the sanction and support of the religion in which he believes, and in fighting against it he more than half thinks that he is fighting against God and his Church, as well as against God's representative, the Czar, to whom he has solemnly sworn allegiance. It takes more courage in him to do this than it would to lead a forlorn hope against a fortress.

Now, if you will add together the feeling of hopelessness caused by an unbroken record of defeats, the dread of authority which is due to a thousand years of subjection, the blood taint of submission inherited from ancestors who were serfs, and a religious belief which weakens every rebellious tendency and every impulse to resist, you will partly understand how a Russian peasant may be a brave man and yet be incapable of carrying a revolution through to success.

But even this is only a partial statement of the case. You say that "if the hundred million people of Russia would select good leaders, and follow them implicitly, they could probably throw off the yoke." This brings me to

*3. The environment.* According to my recollection (I haven't the exact figures at hand) there are in the Russian Empire about 300,000 towns, villages, and settlements. Of these, approximately 295,000 are off railways. Not more than one in 300 of them has a newspaper. Seventy-two per cent of the people who live in them are illiterate. The postal service, of course, is in the hands of the Government, and the correspondence of any person may be opened and read. It is always read when the writer or the receiver is under suspicion of political untrustworthiness. Public meetings are forbidden, and an unauthorized gathering of a dozen persons for the discussion of public affairs is an "unlawful assemblage" whose participators may be imprisoned or exiled by administrative order. The newspapers are all under censorship, and this censorship is most strict in the country districts, where an overwhelming majority of the peas-

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ants live. Unauthorized possession of fire-arms is a penal offense, and not one peasant in a thousand has a pistol or a gun. There is everywhere an organized army of police and spies, whose watchfulness is stimulated by promises of promotion and reward.

Now, can you suggest any possible way in which this great, scattered, inarticulate mass of uneducated peasants can get together in such an environment and choose leaders? Or any way in which they can follow such leaders after they have chosen them? Or any way in which they can fight effectively, without weapons, against police, troops, and Black Hundreds armed with automatic rifles, artillery, and machine guns? It was just this impossibility of getting together and fighting in masses that forced the resort to terrorism and assassination. The bolder and more enlightened spirits—peasants as well as gentlemen—could not tolerate the conditions and would no longer submit; so they fought in the only way that was left to them and with the only weapons they could get.

You say that "the Mexican peons" are "making a brave effort to overthrow the small oligarchy that has controlled them." True! But they didn't attempt much under Porfirio Diaz; and the Russian Government is ten times more powerful and resourceful than that of Diaz, or of any Mexican ruler since Cortez.

If the Russian peasants did not stand by their representatives after the forcible dissolution of the First Duma, it was largely because they had no weapons and regarded further resistance as hopeless. In more than a hundred cities and towns they had seen their fathers, brothers, sisters, and wives clubbed or shot to death in the streets by Black Hundred *pogrom* rioters and hooligans, who were not only armed, but who murdered and looted with the encouragement of the Government and under the protection of armed police. I don't make this as a rhetorical or exaggerated statement. It is supported by a mass of official and unofficial testimony which fills two large volumes. This was the Government's "counter-revolution."

If I were without weapons to fight with, and if an attempt to overthrow the Government with bare hands were almost certain to involve my family in the horrors of a *pogrom* and bring me to the scaffold, I'm not sure that I shouldn't weaken, myself. The Russian peasants are not cowards. No men in the world—not even the Americans or the Japanese—could have fought with more unflinching courage than they did on 203-Meter Hill at Port Arthur. But in the revolutionary movement of 1905–6 they were practically an unorganized and unarmed mob going up against rifles and machine guns. In Moscow, where the most desperate fighting occurred, the streets were swept with automatic quick-firers, and the houses in which the revolutionists took refuge were destroyed with artillery. Perhaps the Russians gave up sooner than Americans and Englishmen would, but I am not sure even of that. We have not had their history, nor have we ever been tested under their conditions. If we had been dominated for two centuries by the Tartars, if we had then been held in subjection for two or three centuries more by Grand Dukes and Czars, if we had finally been made serfs and had been sold, exploited, and flogged, perhaps even we, forty years after our partial emancipation, should not have had resolution enough to attack such a government as that of Russia, and keep attacking it, with our bare hands, or with such weapons and bombs as we could make secretly for ourselves in underground cellars.

When the Russian peasants escape from the domination of authority, and feel that they have a fighting chance of success, they organize as intelligently and deal with dangers and emergencies as resolutely as people of any other nationality. A striking proof of this is to be found in the history of the so-called "Zheltuga Republic," which I narrated at length some years ago in the "Atlantic Monthly," and briefly, later, in The Outlook, under the title "A Russian Experiment in Self-Government." In that case, six or eight thousand peasants, isolated in a wild and remote part of Manchuria, reduced to order a dangerous minority of four thousand runaway convicts—mostly highwaymen or murderers—and organized a government which would not have been discreditable to an Anglo-Saxon community, and which was far in advance of any government that Russia has ever had since the overthrow of the Novgorod Republic. But in that case they felt self-reliance and a consciousness of power, and were sure that they had a fighting chance of success. In the province of St. Petersburg or Moscow those very same peasants would have seemed to show "toleration" or "indifference," but would really have shown only hopelessness, in the face of invincible authority and irresistible power. G. K.

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# THE ARMY OF PROTECTION

## BY GREGORY MASON

### STAFF CORRESPONDENT OF THE OUTLOOK

THE men who went to Vera Cruz in transports, who took and held the steaming Gulf town in the face of Mexicans and mosquitoes, have been celebrated in song and story as much as the heroes of the Spanish War, but the soldiers who have patrolled the twelve hundred blistering miles of border from Brownsville at the mouth of the muddy Rio Grande to San Diego on the blue Pacific have been ignored by poets and by all of the public except those whose homes are in the danger belt. The Army of Invasion has eclipsed the Army of Protection, yet the regiments on the border have had just as important work to do as those in Vera Cruz, and have done it just as well, which is saying a good deal.

It is always easier to attack than to defend, to thrust than to parry, to hit the other fellow than to wait for the blow which you know he intends to aim at you. To take a seaport in the face of a withering fire from hidden snipers requires great physical courage, and no little moral courage too; to police an international boundary against smugglers from behind and raiding bands from in front, carefully holding your temper so that no act of retribution against either of these nuisances is committed in foreign territory to make a *casus belli*, requires all kinds of courage, patience, and tremendous self-control, particularly when the people on both sides are boiling over with hot-blooded patriotism which threatens to spill on the slightest jolt. That there has been no "Tampico incident" on our southern border speaks worlds for the wisdom of the officers and the self-restraint of the men of the Army of Protection.

For fifteen months while our men have been camped along the Rio Grande, particularly for the last three months, since the invasion of Vera Cruz, the slightest misstep would have meant war. Yet there has been no war. American sentries have been fired upon from Mexico; marauding bands of swarthy adventurers have crossed to the American side, destroying property and endangering life. Fully conscious that their restraint seemed weakness to the Mexicans, whose view-point was illustrated by the remark of a Mexican officer to some American friends in Chihuahua, that "we have burned your houses, ravished your women, and butchered your men. What *will* make you fight?" *our* soldiers, obedient to orders, have checked their natural inclination to "go across and clean 'em up."

Besides proving their infinite patience and splendid discipline, however, the visit of our troops to the southern line has demonstrated their general fitness for business. The southern expedition has more thoroughly tested the efficiency of most of them than any experience they have had since leaving the Philippines and Cuba. The muscles of the men have been relieved of all kinks acquired by life in post, and the officers have had a chance to put into practice their little hobbies relating to equipment and drill. The wind of men and horses has been tested in long marches over the sandy roads of Texas, Arizona, and New Mexico; the "shooting eyes" of the men have had a chance to grow accustomed to the fierce clearness of border air; the skill of the boys who manage the big guns that are feared more than any other tool of Mars by the Mexicans has taken on added polish in gun-laying, and direct and indirect firing among the sand mountains and mesas; while every piece of the apparatus of the Signal Corps from "buzzers" to wireless has been thoroughly tried out on the desert ranges.

General John J. Pershing, in command at Fort Bliss, El Paso, who acquired during four years in charge of the Department of Mindanao experience that will stand him in good stead if he is ever called upon to cross the Rio Grande, has had his men going through all manner of stunts calculated to be particularly effective against the Mexican. General Pershing has laid particular stress on the control of rifle fire, so that the entire position of the enemy will be covered, no two men firing at the same opponent. The three branches of this art are fire direction, fire control, and fire discipline, and the high priests in charge are, respectively, the captain of the company, the platoon commanders, and the squad leaders. The cap-



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tain locates the position of the enemy, and gives it to the platoon commanders, who pass it on to the squad leaders. Another feature of the work that General Pershing has given his men in anticipation of Mexican trouble is special instruction in street fighting, the prevention of sniping, and the control of captured towns.

With this special advance instruction, and the experience that considerably more than fifty per cent of the officers and men in the border army have gained in the Philippines, the Army of Protection is now well fitted to cope with the Mexican peril, so far as training and spirit go. If our entire army is like the force on the border, then it is not only the finest body of fighting men we have ever had, but a general organ of efficient government as well. The men have taken the material that was given them and have made the best of it. To a civilian they seem to be the acme of prepared efficiency, and if he sees them about the streets of El Paso, slim and erect, walking with a slight lithe swing from the hips, he is filled with comfort by the contrast they present to the smudgy-faced, sleepy-eyed loungers in the nondescript uniforms of Mexico who dawdle about the streets of Juarez. As he talks with the American soldiers, however, and particularly with the American officers, he is struck by the unanimity with which they point to their own shortcomings and to the lack of preparedness for war, which is not their fault, but the fault of the Government and of the people behind them.

In other words, while the public is satisfied with the army, the army is not at all satisfied with itself or with what the people have given it.

"We may look well enough on parade to justify the enthusiasm with which the people of this town greet us whenever we turn out," a captain of infantry said to me as we sat in his shaking tent, where a sand-storm had driven us, "and we are rather proud of our appearance ourselves, and of course we feel that we could knock the spots out of the Mexicans. At the same time, we know that we would be up against it if war were declared. We have been in camp on this border for three months, some of us for fifteen months, but we are not yet ready for war. One of the first things that an army needs is a hospital train, and we have none. What most bothers us, however, is that our forces are far below war strength. The infantry companies are particularly depleted, and if war were declared they would be brought up to war strength by an influx of raw men that would simply clog the whole machine. Most of us would rather go ahead with our depleted companies of from forty to sixty men than attempt to absorb the mass of 'rookies' that would be shoved upon us."

This captain's remarks were typical. Everywhere I found a feeling of resentment against the policy of leaving the army in weakness till the eve of battle and then filling it with raw material. I found it true that the hospital corps would have to depend upon the quartermaster's department for transportation, which means that it would be the last branch of the service to get into Mexico in time of war, for of course on the firing line ammunition is more needed than arnica, and every car and wagon at the quartermaster's disposal would be required to move men and ammunition.

Another want is artillery. There are nine batteries of field artillery on the border, with four guns to each battery—a total of thirty-six guns. In Mexico the Constitutionalists alone have in the neighborhood of one hundred field pieces, although they are supplied with poor ammunition and are poorly handled. The greatest drawback, however, as the captain pointed out, was the undermanning of every regiment.

In this respect the field artillery has the advantage of the other branches of the service. In the event of war each battery would be swelled by twenty-one men and fifty-three horses, a number not too great for absorption. Each company of infantry and each troop of cavalry, however, would have to take in a number approximately as large as its present strength, or more than the military stomach could digest. The efficiency of the infantry, which is the backbone of every army, would be knocked out fifty per cent by this deluge of recruits, according to the infantry officers with whom I talked.

A good example of the unpreparedness of our army for war as far as the mere matter of enrollment is concerned is furnished by the division of Texas City. This force has been there two years, supposedly on an expeditionary footing, yet its strength to-day is only twelve thousand, instead of the twenty thousand that it would be if on a war footing. If this division had been brought up to its proper strength during the two years that

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it has lain in camp, it could hold any army that Mexico could put in the field.

Speaking of our deficiency in military strength, the "Army and Navy Journal" of July 4 says:

"One of the divisions of the army, the Second, has been massed on the border for the last year with a view to a contingency such as has just occurred. It is practically complete in its components except for a shortage in field artillery, but the infantry regiments, which should have 1,836 men each (war strength), have not even the minimum peace strength of 816. In the brigade of this division which General Funston took to Vera Cruz the infantry consisted of four regiments, and should have had about seven thousand men. It is doubtful whether it had twenty-five hundred, and yet when it left Galveston it was with the probability that armed opposition would be encountered. Such wanton neglect of provision would not be looked for even in such a backward country as Turkey. How much more condemnable is it in the case of one of the greatest nations of the globe?

"Of the other two divisions, the first is partly on the Atlantic Coast and partly in Texas; the third is in part on the Pacific Coast and in part on the Mexican border. Each division, in addition to certain staff troops, should have nine regiments of infantry, one of cavalry, and two of field artillery. This is far from being the case. . . . Not only is there the same condition in regard to numerical weakness in regiments as obtains in the second division, but these divisions are short in their component parts. The first is short three regiments of infantry and one of field artillery, while the third is short four regiments of infantry and one of field artillery. The reason for this shortage is that there are no regiments to make the shortage up, and this with a situation facing us which for more than a year has threatened war. Placed in the form of a table, this shortage is strikingly expressive:

| | Infantry Reg'ts. Short. | Field Art. Reg'ts. Short. |
|---|---|---|
| First Division.... | 3 | 1 |
| Second Division.. | 4 | 1 |
| | 7 | 2" |

It is properly the work of a military expert to point out the particulars in which the army on the border is deficient in war preparations, and to estimate how much progress it could make into Mexico in its present condition. It seems to a layman that the forces now on the border would have their hands full in defense of the tortuous boundary, and if the word came to go ahead would not wisely go farther than Chihuahua, Monterey, and the northern tier of Mexican cities until heavily strengthened with men and munitions. In other words, a quick blow at Mexico City, Zacatecas, or other central point by our men on the border in co-operation with those at Vera Cruz would seem to be rather hazardous under present conditions.

At any rate, it is easy for even a layman to point out the reason for the unpreparedness of our army. The trouble is that we have no military policy, and have never had one. We are not a military nation in spirit and never have been. Ninety-nine citizens out of a hundred have no interest in the army. A large standing army is not supposed to be in keeping with the trend of democracy. The average man's view-point towards the army was illustrated by an incident at a public dinner in Chicago recently. The wife of a prominent business man asked a woman sitting near her what her husband did for a living. "Why, he is in the army," was the answer. "Oh, how interesting! And where is the army now?" inquired the first lady, evidently believing that the army was migratory, like the birds of the air.

Another case illustrates the same lack of interest of the public in military affairs. Soon after the arrival of General Pershing at El Paso, three months ago, it was arranged to have all the forces camped in the neighborhood parade through the streets for the benefit of the populace. A captain of artillery, with a keen sense of beauty, picked out a battery hauled by splendid black horses as his choicest exhibit. A prominent society woman seated in the reviewing stand with several army friends was delighted with the sight of the prancing horses and freshly painted caissons.

"Oh, aren't they beautiful?" she said to her companions. "So they are the infantry, are they?"

The apathy of the public when military affairs are concerned has given the politicians their chance. Many a pork-grabbing legislator has acquired a reputation for economy by advocating a small army appropriation, for it is easier to oppose the Appropriation Bill than the Reclamation Bill or the Rivers and Harbors Bill which are of much more vital concern to local interests. As a matter of

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fact, this zealousness for economy is productive of great waste. At present we have the skeleton of a big organization, with the tissue of a small one—that is, we have plenty of officers but not enough men. Along the Rio Grande it struck me as a pathetic waste of valuable material to see an able-bodied captain and two lieutenants directing a company of only forty men. Our regiments in Honolulu and Manila are fully manned and our officers there have enough work to keep them contented. The cost of getting the regiments at home up to war strength would be trifling, a mere matter of $15 or $20 wages a month per capita, roughly speaking, and 23 cents a day per capita for rations. We have a large enough plant, but we are not getting the proper output because of our traditional feeling that the last way to spend money is for National defense.

Sooner or later this *laisser faire* policy will be disastrous. We had a narrow escape in 1898. According to estimates of army men with experience in Mexico, large scale military occupation of that country by the United States would demand a force of 250,000 fighting men. Our regular army would have to be backed up by a force of 200,000 National Guardsmen or volunteers, for every town would have to be strongly garrisoned and every mile of railway patrolled. The glamour of such a war would soon wear off, and few volunteers would enlist for the privilege of doing garrison duty in a Mexican "tank town." In such a crisis we would appreciate the existence of a military reserve such as European countries have.

This does not mean the establishment of military conscription in this country. Thanks to our isolated position, it will be a long time before that is necessary, if it will ever be. But one of the greatest wastes under the present wasteful system arises from the fact that men are taken into the army, trained, given a war education, and then are allowed to leave at the expiration of their enlistment without a record being kept of their whereabouts in case they are needed in emergencies. The voluntary reserve list now in use is wholly inadequate; only seven men were available from it last year. The traditional plan in this country has been that the ultimate war force shall be a great body of citizen soldiers, but citizen soldiers cannot be depended upon to meet a trained enemy unless they also are trained, and for them to get this training after war had been declared might be fatal. What our army needs, more than anything else, is, first, a trained reserve to draw upon in time of war; second, a more widespread interest on the part of the public.

Both these advantages would naturally result from the establishment of a reform which Secretary of War Garrison has already urged upon Congress. Mr. Garrison's plan would automatically create a large reserve body of trained soldiers by granting enlisted men the privilege of petitioning for release from the service on good behavior at the expiration of one year of their enlistment.

"This change," Secretary Garrison said to me in Washington, "plus a thoroughgoing system for keeping in touch with the men after they leave the army, would bring a better type of manhood into the army, would raise the public esteem of that body, and would palliate the fear of a large standing force of soldiers. Many young men would be glad to go into the army for a year who would not consider a long enlistment, and a man can become a very good soldier in a year's time. As more men and a better class of men enlisted, the public's understanding and sympathy for the service would increase, and the army would become less and less a shuttlecock for politicians."

Secretary Garrison's bill embodying this reform failed to pass Congress at the present session. It will be introduced again, however, and it should have the hearty support of every citizen far-seeing enough to realize that weakness will get us into more international complications than strength, and that our regular army to-day, while the best that we have ever had, is not an adequate "Army of Protection."

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# Current Events Pictorially Treated

PHOTOGRAPH BY UNDERWOOD & UNDERWOOD

PROSPECTIVE RULERS OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY

Charles Francis Joseph, the nephew of the Archduke Francis Ferdinand, recently assassinated, becomes through the death of his uncle the heir to the throne. He is 26 years old, is a man of amiable character, and is popular among all classes. His wife is the Princess Zita of Bourbon and Parma. She is four years younger than her husband, and but little of her life has been passed at court

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PHOTOGRAPHS FROM THE U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE

## HOW THE CHILDREN GET TO SCHOOL

The picture at the top of the page shows the difficulties encountered by school-children in the Wilderness Region of Virginia in their pursuit of an education. The central picture shows a considerable advance in methods of travel; the concrete road enables the children to skate to school on roller skates. The photograph at the bottom of the page illustrates the enlightened stage attained by the consolidated school at Mayslick, Kentucky; the view shows seven wagons which bring to the school each day two-thirds of the 265 pupils enrolled. The school furnishes the wagons. See "The Road that Takes the Child to School," in the editorial section of this issue

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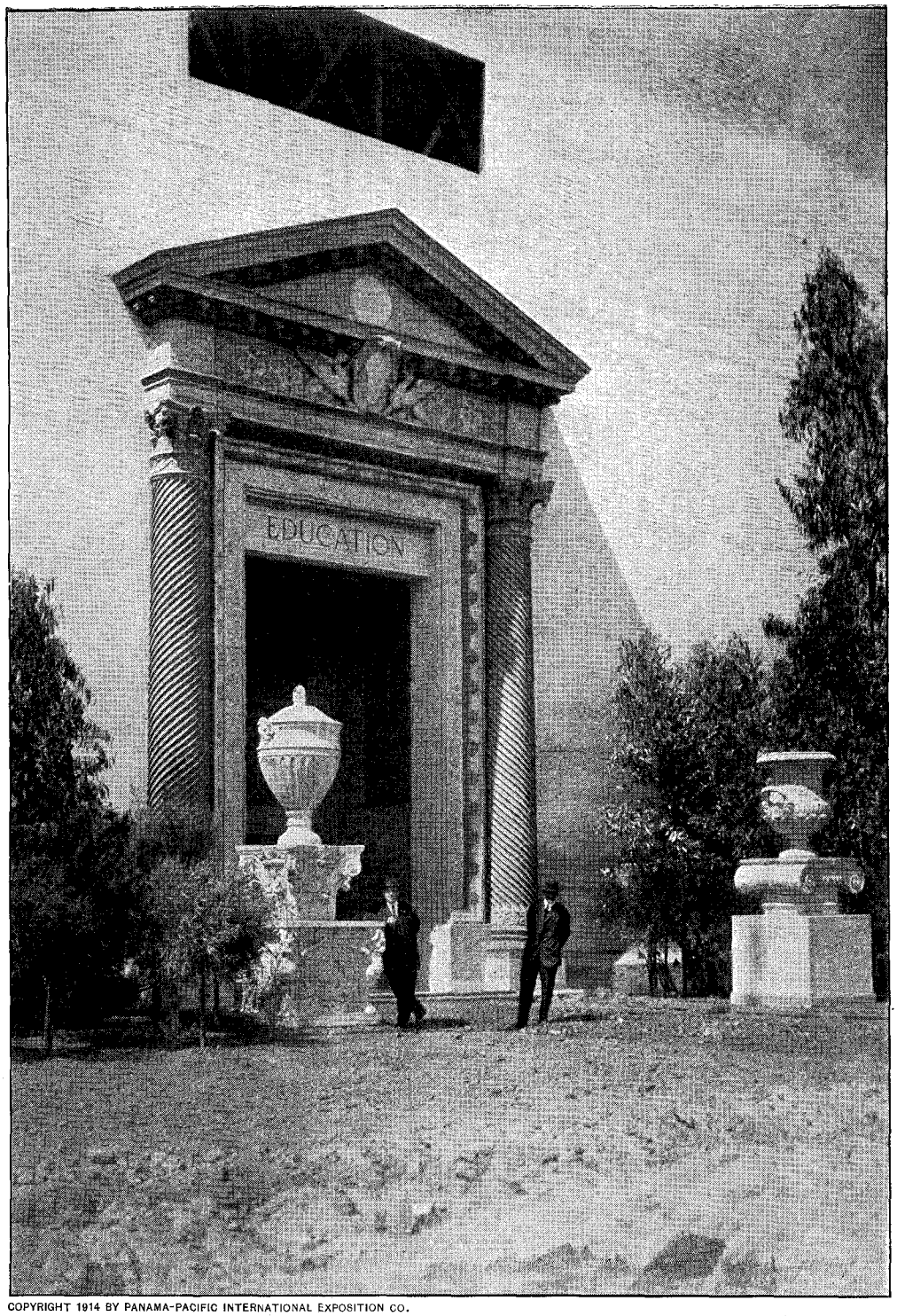


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AN ENTRANCE TO THE PALACE OF EDUCATION AT THE PANAMA-PACIFIC INTERNATIONAL EXPOSITION

The Palace of Education is designed to be one of the most noteworthy features of the Exposition. In it will convene many of the learned societies and organized institutions for social welfare, from all countries, that have been invited to meet in conference at the Exposition. "Already," say the managers, "two hundred and twenty-six of these meetings have been scheduled, and there will probably be as many more"

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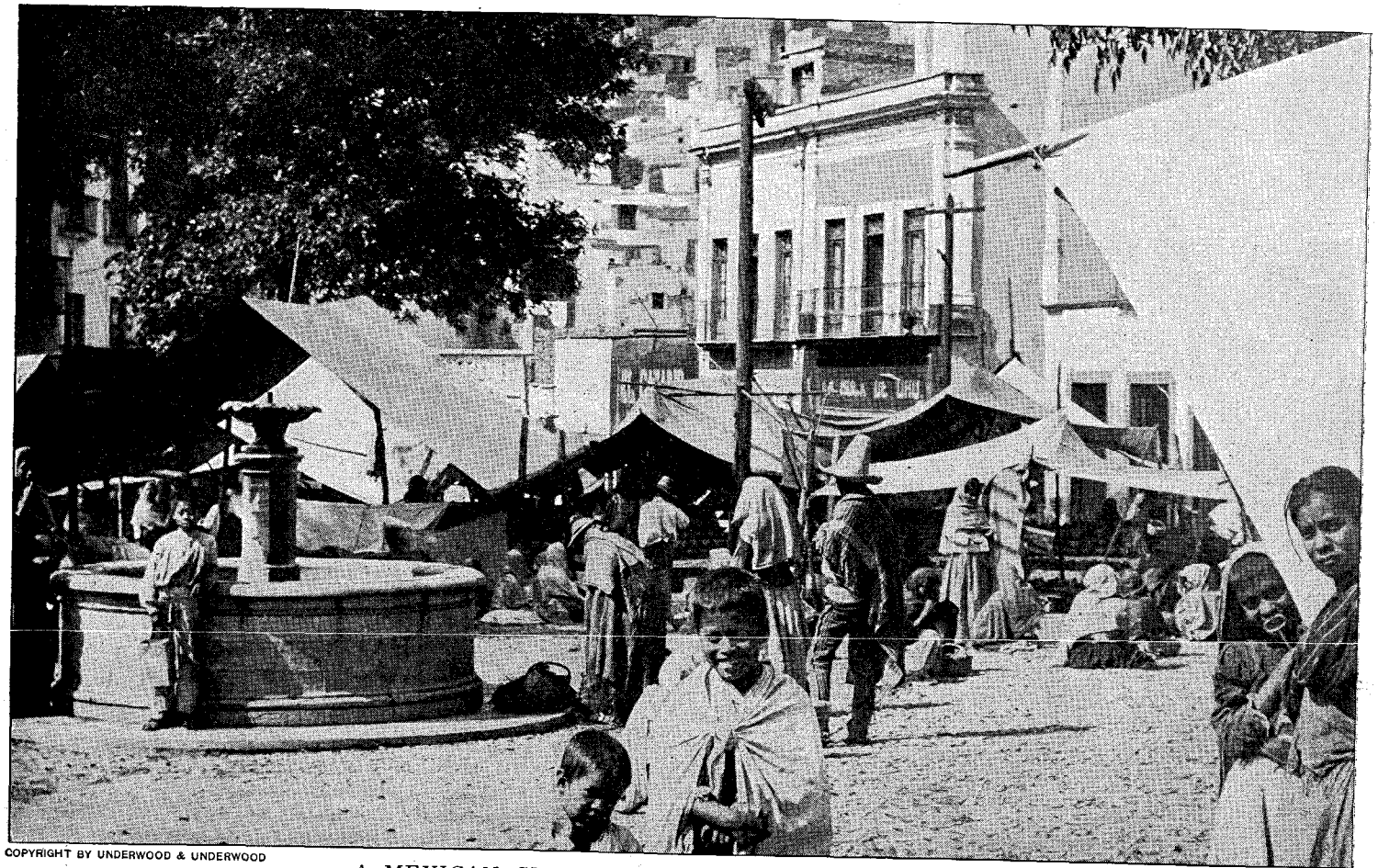

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A MEXICAN CITY RECENTLY CAPTURED BY VILLA

Zacatecas, the market-place of which is pictured above, was for some time the focal point of the internecine war in Mexico. The photograph gives a good idea of many another town in the interior of Mexico, for the architecture as well as the physiognomy here shown is typical, and soon becomes familiar to the traveler

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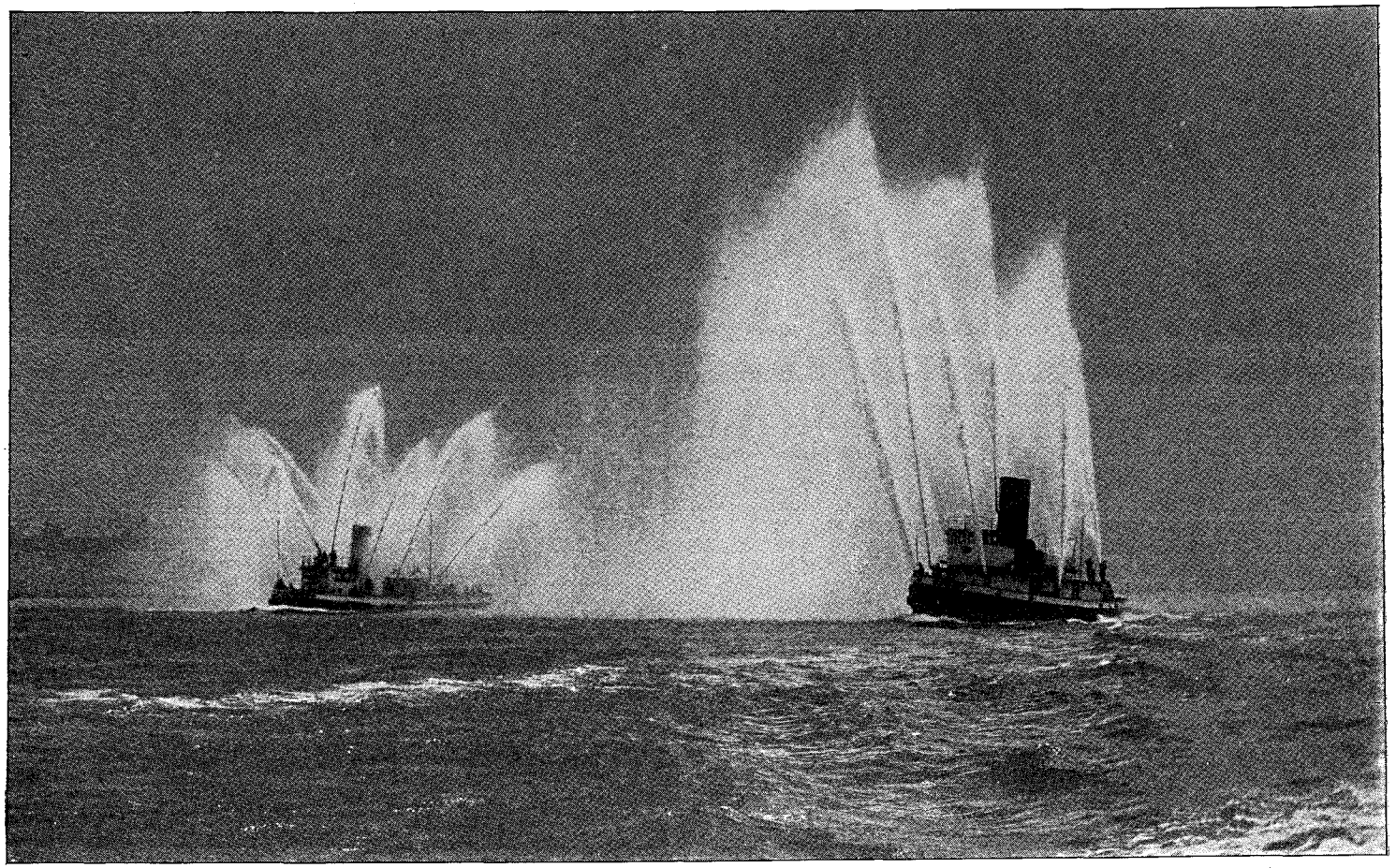

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## A NEW FIRE FIGHTER FOR NEW YORK CITY

The danger of fire along the extensive water-front of New York has led the city to purchase another fire-boat to add to the fleet of ten already in operation. The new boat, shown on the right in the picture, is called, in honor of the late Mayor, "William J. Gaynor." What is called the "cascade salute" is being given by the boats

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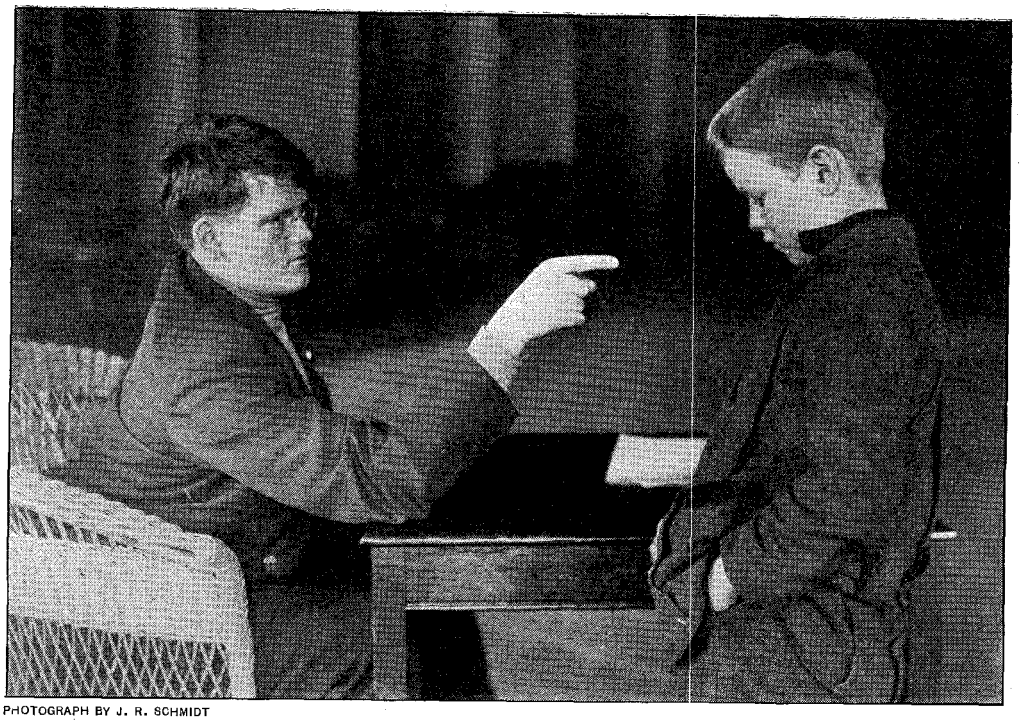

PHOTOGRAPH BY J. R. SCHMIDT

A BOY MAYOR IN AMERICA COUNSELING A BOY CITIZEN

"Don't fight; bring your troubles to me," says Mayor Arthur Martindill, of the Boyville Court of Cincinnati. The fighting boy learns "the better way" from another boy who is wise through greater responsibility and wider experience

PHOTOGRAPH BY PAUL THOMPSON

BOY SCOUTS IN ENGLAND CHEERING THE QUEEN

Ten thousand Boy Scouts were recently reviewed by Queen Alexandra in London. The picture shows how effectively loyalty can be encouraged by giving boys, as an organized body, a chance to see their rulers and be seen, under conditions which evoke mutual regard

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PHOTOGRAPH FROM PAUL THOMPSON

## MRS. PERCY V. PENNYBACKER

The President of the General Federation of Women's Clubs, re-elected without opposition at the recent convention of the organization, receives in the above picture somewhat tardy justice at the hands of the photographer. In The Outlook of July 4 another picture, sent to us by a well-known firm of dealers in news photographs, was wrongly credited by them and by us with the name of Mrs. Pennybacker

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JOSEPH CHAMBERLAIN

Mr. Chamberlain, who died on July 3 in London, was in turn leader of Radical, Unionist, and Imperialist forces in England. See the editorial section of this issue

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# THE IMPORTANCE OF BEING INTERESTED

## BY H. ADDINGTON BRUCE

MANY, many years ago there lived in the city of Boston a small boy whose days were spent in a singularly wearisome way. At the age of ten, when most boys are dividing their time between school and play, he was busy all day boiling soap, cutting wicks for tallow candles, filling candle molds, and otherwise drudging as assistant to his father in the soap and candle business. It was a business in which the father took an honest pride, and in thus apprenticing his youngest son to it he did so with the expectation of giving him full charge and ownership in later years.

As it happened, though, the son's mind was filled with thoughts of other things than soap and candles. He worked faithfully enough at the kettles and wicks and molds; but he worked with such scant enthusiasm and such little skill that his father soon perceived that he would never become an expert candle-maker. Bitterly disappointed, he nevertheless appreciated the folly of compelling his son to persist in an occupation manifestly uncongenial to him. To another and much older son he one day said:

"Will you take Ben into your printing-shop? He will never be a successful chandler, but he may be a fair printer. At any rate, I wish you would give him a chance."

Into the printing-shop, accordingly, young Ben went, somewhat against his will, for the handling of inky type seemed to him only a trifle less unpleasant than dealing with greasy molds. But he presently made the important discovery that through typesetting he was in a position both to gain knowledge for himself and to make knowledge available for other people by putting it into print. Forthwith he became interested in printing as he had never been in candle-making; also, he became fired with a desire to learn all he could about as many subjects as possible, and he developed, besides, an ambition to turn author and see his own thoughts take form on the printed page.

Behold him, then, sometimes sitting up the whole night long poring over Plutarch's "Lives," "The Spectator," Locke's "Essays," and kindred works of information and literary power. Behold him in the fervor of his zeal turning vegetarian at the age of sixteen, because the greater cheapness of his meals would allow him more money for books. Behold him scribbling and rescribbling in the effort to give clear expression to the ideas forming in his mind as a result of his wide reading and hard thinking. Finally, behold him timidly slipping under the door of his brother's newspaper office an unsigned essay written in a disguised hand—an essay so good that, on publication, its authorship was variously ascribed to leading writers of the day.

Thereafter he toiled more industriously than ever—printing, reading, thinking, writing. Ere he was thirty he was widely known, and long before his death he was acclaimed on two continents as one of the wisest of men. We of to-day, looking back from the vantage-point of more than a century later, feel that the praise of his contemporaries was not misplaced. For the whilom candle-maker who thus rose to eminence was none other than Benjamin Franklin, philosopher, scientist, diplomat, and apostle of America's freedom.

Take, similarly, the history of an English lad born some twenty years after Franklin died. More happily circumstanced, being the son of a successful physician, this boy was given all the advantages of a good schooling. But he did not seem to draw much profit from his lessons. In fact, as he himself has told us, both his father and his teachers were inclined to regard him as "rather below the common standard in intellect." To make matters worse from his father's point of view, he showed a marked distaste for the tasks of the school-room, and an equally marked fondness for vagabondage.

Gun in hand, he would roam for hours through verdant lanes or across the open country. "You care for nothing but shooting, dogs, and rat-catching, and you will be a disgrace to yourself and all your family," his father once predicted, mournfully. As the boy grew older, his propensity for idling seemed only to increase. In spite of this, hoping against hope that he would yet settle down to serious things, his father entered him at the University of Glasgow, with the idea of fitting him for the practice of medicine. "It is no use," the boy frankly avowed, after a few



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months at Glasgow. "I hate the work here, and I cannot possibly be a physician." So earnest were his protests that he was transferred to Cambridge University, on the understanding that he would study to be a clergyman.

At Cambridge, as good fortune would have it, he entered the natural history class of an eminent and enlightened scholar, Professor Henslow, who sent him into the woods and fields to make collections of plants and insects. Free again to roam under the clear blue skies, but this time with a lofty purpose set before his mind, a passion for achievement took possession of him. The boy whom other teachers had found dull and lazy proved himself, under Professor Henslow's inspiring guidance, a marvel of industry and mental vigor. There was no longer any thought of the "last resort" plan of putting him into the ministry. He would, he assured his now delighted father, devote his whole life to the study of nature's laws.

Thus it came about that, when his college days were over, he eagerly accepted an opportunity to accompany a Government exploring expedition. During that long voyage in Southern seas he accumulated a remarkable collection of specimens. What was far more important, he brought back with him to England, after a five years' absence filled with hardships, a mass of new ideas regarding fundamental principles in natural science—ideas which, being masterfully scrutinized and sifted, were afterwards to make him world-famous as Charles Darwin, originator of the doctrine of evolution.

Again, there was born in the German city of Salzburg, about the middle of the eighteenth century, a bright-eyed boy, the son of a Court musician. As was inevitable by reason of his father's vocation, this child, from the hour he first opened his eyes and ears to the world about him, daily heard melody from violin, clavier, and harpsichord. Before he was three years old it was noticed that he not only seemed to take great delight in listening to music, but also that he often attempted with his little fingers to strike harmonious intervals on the clavier. His father, amused but impressed, offered to give him lessons; joyfully the child accepted, and at once a start was made.

Thenceforth music dominated his waking thoughts. The toys of childhood were cast aside, and in their stead he played with the keyed and stringed instruments to which his father gave him ready access. Increasingly he astonished all around him with his unusual skill. By the time he was four he could play several minuets on the harpsichord; at five he was busily composing themes of his own; and in his sixth year he was able to play the violin so well that he once assisted his father and a celebrated violinist in rehearsing six trios which the latter had recently composed.

Modest, unassuming, bending his every effort to progress in the art which had so fascinated him, the youngster passed in quick succession from one notable feat to another. On all sides the prediction was heard: "If this boy keeps on as he has begun, he will be one of the world-masters of music." Those who are familiar with Mozart's marvelous compositions for church, opera-house, and concert-room know well that the prediction was amply fulfilled.

Now, I have recalled these beginnings of the careers of Franklin, Darwin, and Mozart because they strikingly illustrate a profound psychological truth the significance of which can scarcely be overestimated. It is a truth, to be sure, that has long been partially recognized. But its full meaning has not been—and could not be—appreciated until quite recently. Only within the past few years has scientific research effected sundry discoveries which make its complete recognition possible and of supreme importance—of such importance that practical application of the principles involved would make for an immediate and stupendous increase in human happiness, efficiency, and welfare.

Stated briefly, the truth in question is that success in life, meaning thereby the accomplishment of results of real value to the individual and to society, depends chiefly on sustained endeavor springing out of a deep and ardent interest in the tasks of one's chosen occupation. It is not enough merely to be a "hard worker." The world is full of people who slave faithfully at their respective duties, perhaps earn a handsome living, but know in their hearts that they have failed to achieve their possibilities. Yet the trouble with them simply is that they are not really interested in what they are doing. They are "misfits," as Franklin was in his father's candle-shop and Darwin at the University of Glasgow. Unlike Franklin and Darwin, they have not been so fortunate as to stumble eventually upon a vocation capable of inciting in them a passionate enthusiasm; unlike Mozart, they have not had a father

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wise enough to perceive their natural inclinations and brave enough to safeguard the development of these by an early education. Had they been thus circumstanced, who knows but that they might have attained results fairly comparable with the results attained by Franklin and Darwin and Mozart—all through the dynamic power of interest.

Indeed, evidence is accumulating that it is in this, rather than in any exceptional structure of the brain, that we have the true explanation of the wonderful achievements of so-called "men of genius." Looked at superficially, the mental processes of the man of genius undoubtedly seem to differ greatly from those of the ordinary man. In the case of the former, great ideas, marvelous "inspirations," often spring into consciousness seemingly of their own accord. Napoleon used to say that his battles frequently were won by tactics devised by him on the spur of the moment. "The decisive moment approached, the spark burst forth, and one was victorious." Goethe has testified that not a few of his themes, and sometimes whole poems, came to him from he knew not where. On Schiller's own testimony, when he was consciously at work, creating and constructing, his imagination did not serve him "with the same freedom as it had done when nobody was looking over its shoulder." Likewise we have Mozart's statement that his compositions "came involuntarily, like dreams."

All this, I say, seems very different from the workings of the mind of the ordinary man. Yet, after all, exactly the same sort of thing occurs to the latter. He, too, has his "happy thoughts," his occasional "flashings" of wise decisions, correct solutions of baffling problems, etc. Noticeably, however, his happy thoughts and flashings are always connected with matters to which he has devoted much conscious attention, matters which have been of great interest to him. It is as though, by thinking of them earnestly, he has set in motion some hidden mechanism that has enabled him, smoothly and easily, and all unknown to himself, to arrive at definite conclusions *beneath the threshold of consciousness*.

Precisely thus with the man of genius. A Napoleon's inspirations are not concerned with nature's laws; those of a Darwin have nothing to do with military conquest; those of a Mozart relate neither to problems of science nor problems of war. No, the inspirations of every man of genius are concerned solely with the subjects in which, perhaps from earliest childhood, he has taken the greatest interest, and to which he has devoted the greatest thought. Napoleon, it is known, was so absorbed in military matters that, even at the opera, his mind would be incessantly occupied with some such problem as: "I have ten thousand men at Strasbourg, fifteen thousand at Magdeburg, twenty thousand at Wurzburg. By what stages must they march so as to reach Ratisbon on three successive days?" The flowering of Darwin's great discovery was not the work of a moment, but was preceded by years of patient, arduous observation. Mozart, beginning the study of music at the age of three, remained a zealous student all his days.

"Nobody," runs his own account, "takes as much pains in the study of composition as I. You could not easily name a famous master in music whom I have not industriously studied, often going through his works several times." Walking, or at the theater, or even while engaged in social amusements, he lived in a self-created atmosphere of music. "In Prague," Otto Jahn has recorded, "it once happened that Mozart, while he was playing billiards, was humming a motif, and from time to time would look into a book he had with him. Afterward he confessed he had been at work upon the first quintette of the 'Zauberflöte'!" And we have his wife's testimony: "In truth, his head was working all the time, his mind was ever moving, he composed almost unceasingly." As with Napoleon, Darwin, and Mozart, so with all men of genius of whose lives we have any detailed record.

It may, then, be stated as a well-established fact that intense interest plus persistent effort is the prime essential to the highest success in any sphere of human activity. Of importance, also, is the fact that, as a general thing, the "set" of a man's mind, the direction which his interest most readily takes, is indicated more or less clearly in the first years of life. This is proved not only by the early lives of the world's most eminent men and women, but also by the results of careful statistical investigations into the life histories of "average" people. Perhaps especially impressive are the findings of an inquiry carried out not long ago by that well-known American psychologist Edward L. Thorndike.

Professor Thorndike submitted to one hundred third-year students in Columbia College, Barnard College, and Teachers College a

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list of subjects of study, including mathematics, history, literature, science, drawing, and such hand-work as carving, carpentering, gardening, etc. Each student was required to fill in a tabular blank showing the order in which the various subjects were of greatest interest to that particular student: (1) during the last three years of elementary school attendance, (2) during the high school period, and (3) at the time of the investigation. Blanks were also to be filled indicating the student's judgment as to his or her ability in each of the respective subjects during the period covered by the inquiry.

From the statistics thus gathered two things stood out clearly: No fewer than sixty per cent of the students made returns showing that the subjects which appealed to them most strongly in their college work were the subjects that had most interested them in early life; and an even closer correspondence (sixty-five per cent) was shown between intensity of interest and intellectual ability. Professor Thorndike then extended his investigation to include two hundred other individuals, and obtained virtually the same results. "These facts," it is not surprising to find him saying in comment, "unanimously witness to the importance of early interests. They are shown to be far from fickle and evanescent. . . . It would indeed be hard to find any feature of a human being which was a more permanent fact of his nature than his relative degree of interest in different lines of thought and action."

What this means, unquestionably, is that every parent, in planning the education of his children or in assisting them to choose a vocation, should make a real effort to gain some insight into their special interests. Not only so, but there is reason for adding that he should also endeavor to ascertain and cultivate those interests while his children are still quite young. Otherwise he is likely to find them growing to manhood and womanhood—as, under present conditions, most children do grow—with the strongest of their "worth-while" interests so attenuated that really effective mental effort is next to impossible. In these circumstances—unless they happen, as Darwin did, to come under the influence of a personality able to arouse their dormant powers into exceptional activity—the chances are that they will achieve only mediocre results, muddling along through life even when they happen to hit upon vocations truly suited to them.

Are we to infer that children, at a tender age, should be encouraged to think seriously about serious subjects? Assuredly, provided the subjects be made sufficiently interesting to them. It is not without significance that a large majority of men of genius have been distinguished for their precocity; or, if not precocious in the ordinary sense of the term, they have busied themselves in childhood with mental activities allied to those for which they afterwards attained eminence. The precocity of Mozart has already been mentioned. Lord Kelvin, the foremost physicist of the nineteenth century, was making electrical machines when only nine years old, and played with them as other children play with dolls and marbles. Thomas Hobbes translated the "Medea" of Euripides into Latin iambic verse before he was fourteen. By the age of eight John Stuart Mill had read Plato and other Greek authors. Cicero at thirteen is credited with having written a treatise on the art of oratory. Pliny the Younger wrote a tragedy at sixteen. Fénelon preached his first sermon when only fifteen years old. Grotius at the age of fourteen was widely known for his learning. Hallam, the famous historian, could read well before he was five, and had turned author four years later. Galileo, like Lord Kelvin, constructed mechanical toys in his childhood.

Not to accumulate instances tediously, it need only be added that, in making a survey of the biographies of a thousand eminent British men and women, the English psychologist Havelock Ellis found that only forty-four were specifically mentioned as not having been precocious, while nearly three hundred were mentioned as having been distinctly precocious in one sense or another. Even in the case of the forty-four, Mr. Ellis discovered, several were really as precocious as any of the three hundred, being "already absorbed in their own lines of mental activity." To this class belong, for example, Landor, Byron, and Wiseman, the last of whom is described as having been in boyhood "dull and stupid, always reading and thinking." Nor, according to the results of Mr. Ellis's investigation, did precocity have any unfavorable effect on the health of these men and women of genius.

All similar investigations, in fact, go to show that intellectual activity makes for longevity—that those who think hardest are likely to live longest. Of one group of nearly eight hundred and fifty men of genius it was found that only two hundred and fifty died before

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they were sixty years old, while one hundred and thirty-one lived to be eighty or older. For another group of five hundred, an average life-span of nearly sixty-five years was found, as against fifty-one years for all classes of people who pass the age of twenty. In the case of still another group, studied by a third investigator, an average of seventy-one years was established.

What gives these figures greater significance is the fact that in many instances the man of genius is exceptionally frail in early life. Mr. Ellis, in his statistical study, found that more than two hundred—or more than twenty per cent of the eminent men and women included in his survey—were "congenitally of a notably feeble constitution," yet that among these were some of the longest lived. How is this to be explained? Only on the theory that the joy they felt in doing work congenial to them promoted bodily as well as mental vigor. And, in point of fact, it is to-day a commonplace among psychologists that pleasurable emotions make for increased strength, while disagreeable feelings make for weakness. With this in mind not a few physicians are actually making use of what may be called "the interest cure" in the treatment of certain classes of patients. They encourage them to take up hobbies, to lay hold of and prosecute earnestly some special interest—whether it be collecting postage-stamps, studying Oriental rugs, engaging in social service work, or what not. Invariably, when a real interest is aroused, beneficial results follow.

Viewed from whatever angle, therefore, "being interested" is one of the most important things in the world to every one of us. The earlier we become interested—intensely interested—in some specific field of activity, the brighter our future prospects will be. But, be it early or be it late, the development of interest—of a real and hearty, not a feeble and wan, interest—is certain to bring to us a wonderful augmentation of power to achieve, power to enjoy life, and power to resist the ordinary ills to which flesh is heir.

# JAPAN TO-DAY AND TO-MORROW

## NIKKO, THE "SUNNY SPLENDOR"

### BY HAMILTON W. MABIE

IN the old days pilgrims in Japan went to Ise as pilgrims in England once went to the shrine of Thomas à Becket in Canterbury, as the more adventurous went to the Holy Land, as to-day the pious Mohammedan goes to Mecca. To the Japanese no place is so sacred except the Great Shrine at Izamo, which is regarded as the oldest existing shrine of the Shinto faith. There the *kami,* or gods that watch over Japan, have their special abode and are most effectively approached, and thither streams of pilgrims still flow from all parts of the Empire. The two shrines are consecrated to the Sun Goddess, the divine ancestress of the Emperor; they preserve the severe simplicity of pure Shinto architecture, and the ancient ceremonials are maintained in their primitive integrity. These shrines are not only the center of the original Japanese religious cult, they are also the symbols of the Mikado tradition which runs through Japanese history and unifies it and is the pillar around which all the institutions of the country have been built. In a real sense the Emperor has been not only the semi-divine ruler of Japan but the head of the family of which all Japanese are members. His authority has been supreme; there have been revolts headed by rival members of the Imperial family, but there has never been a popular revolt against an Emperor; and in the long history of a dynasty so ancient that all other dynasties are parvenus compared with it, the supreme and final authority of the Emperor has never been questioned. During the thousand years of administrative supremacy of the Shoguns the Government was carried on in the name of the Emperor, and the most powerful Shogun never ventured to act save by the authority of an Emperor who lived in seclusion and was protected only by a tradition. But no army has ever so completely guarded a ruler as the Imperial tradition,

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wrought into the very fiber of Japanese life, guarded the Emperor.

Ise is the seat of this tradition and the point of contact between the Japan of to-day and the Japan of two thousand years ago; it has been also the meeting-place of the living and the dead. To its shrines the Emperor has gone in person generation after generation to invoke the presence and aid of his ancestors, to announce important events, and to give thanks for national victories. The shrines are simple to the point of bareness; they are taken down every twenty years and replaced on alternate sites. The setting of the buildings is impressive, and many beautiful memorials of the past have gathered about them; but the shrines are the perishable symbols and shelters of tradition as old as the Empire.

At Nikko, on the other hand, the tradition of the Shogunate, which is already a receding memory, is preserved in shrines of striking richness of design and color. Ise is on the southeastern coast, not far from the Pacific; Nikko is northwest of Tokyo and has a different climate. There is a proverb which reads: "Until you have seen Nikko, do not say splendid!" And if the view of the mountains and river from below the famous red lacquer bridge is not counted among the "three great sights," it is because Japan is so rich in beautiful views. The proper approach to the town is through the avenue of cryptomerias, gigantic trees which attain a girth of eighteen or twenty feet and a height of a hundred feet and more; the shafts rising straight and symmetrical and reminding one of the towering sequoias of California. This noble avenue, originally forty miles in length, was the gift of a daimio who was too poor to enrich the shrines, but who, like many another great donor, builded better than he knew. Nature came to his aid and has made an approach to the shrines more impressive than gates of gold or bronze or lacquer.

The traveler is likely to make his approach to Nikko by the less impressive but more convenient way of the railway station, where he will be put into a *kuruma* and drawn up the long, narrow street lined with little shops, which is not only the thoroughfare of what one of the guide-books happily describes as the "long, thin town," but is much the larger part of the town; the hotels at the top of the hill and the temples across the river form another community. The brawling river, which sometimes has tragic moods, rushes through the gorge and loses itself among the hills below. Twelve years ago, after torrential rains had undermined the slope of an extinct volcano covered with trees, a landslide plunged down the slope with thundering velocity into Chuzenji Lake and sent a vast flood of displaced water surging over a precipice and thence, roaring like a devouring dragon, down the narrow channel of the river. The earth trembled with the shock; the ominous prophecy of a dark, suffocating morning, which had sent hosts of people to the temples, was fulfilled in the few tense, appalling moments during which the swirling mass of water rose suddenly up the banks of the river and swept into its current teahouses, trees, everything that stood in its path. The children, dismissed from one of the schools by a head master who yielded to his forebodings of disaster, had barely crossed the lower bridge when the torrent swept the three bridges out of its path and hurled the shattered fragments on the little plain below, where massive boulders still evidence the irresistible power of the flood. It was a terrifying moment, with every indication of the final catastrophe. The plunge of the torrent past the town "was hysterically synchronized by every electrically charged wire in the town, and by every temple bell and suspended gong within the sacred grove." The temples standing in the ancient groves on four great terraces on the hillside were fortunately beyond the reach of the devouring flood.

There is a line of age-worn stone Buddhas sitting in ancient silence along the river bank at a little distance above the town; in their long brooding on the unstability of worldly things and of human fate they never looked upon a more appalling display of the forces that play with the impotence of men than on that autumnal morning. The maddened river, which took no thought of sacred things, swept some of the stone figures from their bases, wrecked a beautiful temple standing in a lovely garden, sent its fragments and the whirling stone Buddhas crashing against the sacred red bridge, lifted it as if it were a child's toy, hurled it against the other two bridges, and scattered their fragments along a hundred miles of shore. The destruction involved not only life and property but the landscape itself, on which it has left ineffaceable scars.

But Japan is familiar with volcanoes, earthquakes, and devastating storms, and knows how to bind up wounds with kindness, rebuild

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with patience, and go forward with courage; and Nikko is still, as its name indicates, a "sunny splendor." The splendor is always there; but the sun is not always in evidence, for rains are abundant and often torrential. By way of compensation, the landscape has depth and richness of coloring, and living green spreads itself like a garment over every exposed surface of stone or wood.

Looking up the gorge from the bridge which spans the river below the sacred red bridge, the landscape is enfolded in mountains, with ravines in which ferns lead a life of riotous beauty and groves of impressive trees suggest that nature has adopted the scale of the mountains for living as well as inanimate things. The great girth and mass of the trees, which seem planned to guard sacred places, are softened and humanized, so to speak, by the rich profusion and delicate beauty of the flowers which spring in radiant carelessness out of every bit of earth, however exposed, as if the soil held an inexhaustible wealth of beauty which it was eager to spend on every comer. If Perdita had been born in Japan instead of in an imaginary Bohemia, she would have made a rosary of the flowers in Nikko, from the plum blossoms which "take the winds of March with beauty," through the months of the cherry, the wistaria, the azalea, clematis, and iris, to the crimson maples which set the hillsides ablaze when the golden weather comes in autumn.

At Ise the Imperial tradition is enthroned and the very air is charged with loyalty to the dynasty which, after the lapse of more than two thousand years, rules from the throne in the person of the one hundred and twenty-second Emperor. At Nikko the tradition of the Shogunate and the curious dual government of Japan is preserved in a group of gorgeous temples and shrines; but it is a tradition which is fast receding into the past. The last of the Shoguns surrendered his power to the Emperor in 1868, and died in retirement in Tokyo last year. Ise enshrines a living power with the fine simplicity of the Shinto faith; Nikko guards a memory with the splendor through which Buddhism, the most characteristic of the Oriental religions, expresses its mystical meaning.

The first Shogun, Yoritomo, the head of a powerful clan, established his power late in the twelfth century, scrupulously invoking and acting under the authority of the Emperor. Shogun succeeded Shogun for eight hundred years; but in all that time, and when the actual authority was entirely in their hands and the Emperor was living in seclusion in a palace in Kyoto, no Shogun ever ruled save under Imperial commission. When the Mikado was practically powerless, so far as arms and men were concerned, his authority was still supreme in Japan; and, while the Shogun ruled, the Emperor reigned, and in ceremony and public action of every kind the Imperial supremacy was scrupulously recognized. There never were two Emperors in Japan, one ecclesiastical and the other temporal; there was always one Emperor, and the Shogun was his executive representative. The Shogunate passed from one family to another until, two hundred years ago, it became the possession of the Tokugawa family in the person of Ieyasu, one of the ablest of the long line of rulers of Japan. His memory and that of his grandson, Iemitsu, have given Nikko its prestige as a sacred place.

It is said that travelers go to Nikko and leave the temples unvisited as tourists go to England and avoid the cathedrals; but in a very real sense the temples are Nikko. They stand in what some one has called a striking "recessive beauty," building behind building, with long, shaded avenues and flights of stone steps slowly and meditatively ascending the slope of the hill in the foreground. There is an inexhaustible richness of detail in the temples, a beauty of delicate workmanship in the fashioning of hidden or minor parts which is characteristic of Japanese craftsmanship and gives every visit the interest of exploration and discovery; but the spell lies in the large impression, the sense of composition of the complete picture. The temples, daring in color without and within, have become as much a part of the landscape as the trees and the moss-grown stones and monuments; and the tone of the hillside is marvelously rich. A subdued splendor lies softly veiled over the whole as if nature had been enriched, not by embellishment from without, but by a subtle emanation from within. That it is a strange and alien beauty does not repel; it rather draws the visitor from the farther world into an intimacy never quite complete, but for that reason stimulating and awakening. Such lavish blending of black, white, and red, of bronze, gold, and lacquer, has for one trained by Western examples and practice a certain power of excitement akin to the rest-

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lessness which seems to issue from some of the cathedrals at Sienna and Pisa.

But if one is ready to welcome beauty in strange forms and combinations, the groves of Nikko are as wonderful in their way as the great open, high-lighted spaces in which the Greek temples are set. The blaze of color in the depths of the green woods seems at first like an intrusion of audacious artifice into the silent, shadowy places where colors ought to be low and quiet. It is, however, one of the laws of life which the open-minded pilgrim discovers that no shrine is wholly unconsecrated by truth, nor is any without subtle and deep relations with race and soil and sky. The shrines at Nikko are as splendid in color as the Greek temples were glorious in line and structure, in marvelous harmony with light and shadow; they have the same reality of relation to faith and history. Seen again and again, they do not cease to be strange, but they are no longer alien. They speak of things which are part of the history of all peoples: of the mystery of things, of unseen presences, of inexplicable experiences, of courage bred by disaster, of winged hope mounting through the clouds; but they use a different language.

Dead rulers are not buried in the temples at Nikko as they are buried in Westminster Abbey, as they were buried in St. Denis, in the silence and sanctity of a place in which their subsidence into the universal impotency is an appeal for mercy; they have their places, not beside the eternal gods, but in their august companionship; they share the reverence of worshipers with the gods themselves; they are not wholly divine, but they are so far from mortality that they are prayed to rather than prayed for. It is their power which the splendor of the shrines expresses rather than the majesty of the religion under whose sheltering roof they are laid to rest. In the nature of things, therefore, the temples at Nikko must lose much of their sanctity as time goes on; but they will gain deep interest as historical monuments and as examples of ancient architecture. They are, for the most part, Buddhistic in form and embellishment, though the motives which they express are essentially Shintoistic, and since the disestablishment of Buddhism they have been under Shinto control.

The buildings are low; deep shadows are cast by the wide, overhanging eaves; great trees enfold and guard them, not only from the profane tumult of the outer world, but from the glare of light; and one gradually becomes conscious of the subtle harmonies of foliage, sloping roof, golden door, and glowing porch, and of the atmosphere which subdues and enfolds the hillside in a soft splendor of tone.

The two men whose memory is enshrined at Nikko were fighters whose swords commanded their fortunes, and who have striven, by the radiant memorials they decreed for themselves, to fortify their greatness against the assaults of envious time. They have adroitly built their fame into the structure of religion itself; but they remain parvenus among the gods. In the rich mass of details which bewilder the visitor he will imagine that in the carved dragon heads that decorate the gates, the fighting white dragons, and the gilt dragon heads that bear up the curving roof of the gate of the second temple court, the spirit of these masterful men is expressed.

Around the two memorial shrines at Nikko other temples have gathered until a great community of shrines has grown up, with a bewildering mass of adjuncts: *torii*, open courts, pillars, lanterns, fountains, gardens; the grave, sweet tones of the bronze bells seem to gather and express the deep quietness and ancient splendor so wrought upon by the hand of time that white and black and red lacquer in gate and temple and golden doors and gorgeous ceilings are subdued into harmony with the gloom of mighty trees and the shadows of mountains.

But Nikko is more beautiful than its temples, and its enchanting walks take one to more sacred places. The paths that follow the river lead to wild, rocky gorges, with intermediate cascades, and at the end the roar and spray of a waterfall; those that climb the mountains open vistas of wide-spreading plains, and, if your ambition is backed by walking power, you can gain the prize of all Japanese mountain-climbing—a glimpse of Fuji, white and solitary against the horizon. Or you can rest at ease and look at the hills from the bridge and be content.

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# COMMERCE AND FINANCE

A WEEKLY ARTICLE BY THEODORE H. PRICE

## SOME ECONOMIC NOTES BY AN AMERICAN IN ENGLAND

**BANKING Consolidation in England.** During the past week another bank amalgamation has been announced. The Metropolitan Bank of England and Wales, with 156 branch offices and £11,761,265 deposits, has been taken over or absorbed by the London City and Midland Bank, which, when the consolidation is complete, will have about 1,000 branches and nearly £106,000,000 ($530,000,000) deposits.

This makes the London City and Midland Bank the biggest institution in England in so far as deposits are concerned. It is the latest move in what the newspapers here call the "Battle of the Banks," by which phrase the struggle between the London City and Midland Bank and Lloyds Bank is described.

In April last Lloyds took over the Wilts and Dorset Bank, which had about £12,000,000 deposits, and its resources for a time were the largest in the Kingdom, exceeding those of the London City and Midland, of which Sir Edward Holden is the Chairman, and which had hitherto held the primacy. This latest acquisition is construed as evidence that Sir Edward does not mean to surrender the position his bank had previously held, and much curiosity is felt as to whether other consolidations that are rumored will be accomplished.

The London City and Midland now has larger deposits than any other institution in the world except the Imperial Bank of Russia, which is the depository of the Russian Government.

The statement on the next page of all banks having more than £20,000,000 ($100,000,000) deposits and their deposits in 1880 was recently published in the London "Statist," and will give some idea of the modern tendency toward the massing of banking resources.

In the United States public opinion has always been more or less opposed to the aggregation of banking resources under one management, and the recently adopted Federal Reserve Bill is an expression of this antagonism. In Europe until recently these consolidations have been approved of as tending to give greater stability to credit institutions as a whole and make possible larger transactions otherwise difficult, if not impossible. It is, however, noteworthy that this latest acquisition of the London City and Midland Bank has provoked enough protest to lead Sir Edward Holden to make a public statement, which is something an English banker does not very often do.

The statement, as published in the London "Daily Mail," is as follows:

In reply to a question as to whether he admitted the existence of "a battle of the banks" or a race between them to become the largest, Sir Edward Holden smiled and pointed out that for many years past Lloyds Bank had been spreading its tentacles far and wide, absorbing other banks. It was in 1881, he believed, that it began, and ever since then it had gone on continuously extending its powers until it stood in its present position. It was, he thought, better that there should be more than one bank of that size. A single bank left without opposition and rivalry to absorb other institutions in all directions would become altogether too powerful.

As it was, Lloyds, their own bank (the London City and Midland), the London County and Westminster, the National Provincial, and one or two other banks were getting all the best business. The smaller banks were getting the second-best business. Thus the smaller banks found that it was the better policy to amalgamate. There were very few banks which did not see the necessity of the policy. Of the smaller banks there were only four or five which stood aloof and refused to amalgamate.

Sir Edward Holden knew that it was sometimes complained that these huge amalgamations had the disadvantage of changing the old order of things in which the local bank manager understood his customers. But this, Sir Edward said, was not the case. The local managers did still know their customers. When these amalgamations were carried out, the local management remained the same. The only difference was that the banks, strengthened and rendered more efficient by amalgamation, were able to give their customers better accommodation. This was shown by the great increase of loan business in recent years. Moreover, while the small banks were confined to home business, the great banks assisted international trade.

But did not all this amalgamation tend towards monopoly? Sir Edward was most emphatic against any such idea. There was no possibility of banking monopoly. The building up of powerful institutions led to competition. There



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| | Deposits and Current Accounts. | |
|---|---|---|
| | 1914 or Dec. 31, 1913. | 1880. |
| 1. Imperial Bank of Russia | £125,928,000 | £37,971,000 |
| 2. London City and Midland | 105,936,000 | ..... |
| 3. Lloyds Bank, London | 105,210,000 | 5,785,000 |
| 4. Crédit Lyonnais | 89,399,000 | 16,484,000 |
| 5. London County and Westminster Bank | 88,314,000 | ..... |
| 6. Deutsche Bank | 79,002,000 | 3,215,000 |
| 7. Société Générale (Paris) | 72,513,000 | 13,353,000 |
| 8. Bank of England | 71,357,000 | 33,809,000 |
| 9. National Provincial Bank of England | 67,882,000 | 29,138,000 |
| 10. Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation | 61,554,000 | 4,726,000 |
| 11. Barclay & Co | 60,806,000 | ..... |
| 12. Comptoir National d'Escompte de Paris | 56,574,000 | ..... |
| 13. Bank of Spain | 56,316,000 | 28,751,000 |
| 14. Direction der Disconto-Gesellschaft | 50,000,000 [1] | 3,228,000 |
| 15. Dresdner Bank | 47,920,000 | 4,752,000 |
| 16. Banco de la Nacion Argentina | 47,264,000 | ..... |
| 17. National City Bank, New York | 44,266,000 | 3,249,000 |
| 18. Parr's Bank | 43,669,000 | 3,137,000 |
| 19. Russian Bank of Foreign Trade | 43,018,000 | 2,055,000 |
| 20. Union of London and Smiths Bank | 42,084,000 | 13,358,000 |
| 21. Bank of France | 40,318,000 | 25,011,000 |
| 22. Capital and Counties Bank | 39,958,000 | 3,465,000 |
| 23. Canadian Bank of Commerce | 39,769,000 | 2,318,000 |
| 24. Imperial Bank of Germany (Reichsbank) | 39,694,000 | 8,663,000 |
| 25. Bank of Montreal | 39,100,000 | ..... |
| 26. London Joint Stock Bank | 37,637,000 | 12,645,000 |
| 27. Oesterreichische Credit-Anstalt für Handel und Gewerbe | 36,005,000 | 6,920,000 |
| 28. Continental and Commercial National Bank, Chicago | 35,840,000 | ..... |
| 29. Banque International de Commerce à St. Petersburg | 35,252,000 | 1,601,000 |
| 30. Bank of New South Wales | 34,281,000 | 9,039,000 |
| 31. Volga Kama Commercial Bank (Russia) | 34,126,000 | 5,085,000 |
| 32. Guaranty Trust Co. of New York | 33,386,000 | ..... |
| 33. Russian Commercial and Industrial Bank | 32,668,000 | ..... |
| 34. Banca Commerciale Italiana | 32,491,000 | ..... |
| 35. Darmstadter Bank | 30,384,000 | 1,457,000 |
| 36. Banque Russo-Asiatique | 30,000,000 | ..... |
| 37. National Bank of Commerce, New York | 29,745,000 | 3,446,000 |
| 38. Allgemeine Oesterreichische Boden Credit Anstalt | 28,771,000 | 15,393,000 |
| 39. Royal Bank of Canada | 28,500,000 | ..... |
| 40. First National Bank, Chicago | 28,441,000 | 2,654,000 |
| 41. Bankers Trust Co., New York | 27,448,000 | ..... |
| 42. Manchester and Liverpool District Bank | 25,917,000 | 10,825,000 |
| 43. Chase National Bank, New York | 24,816,000 | ..... |
| 44. London and River Plate Bank | 23,432,000 | 2,849,000 |
| 45. National Park Bank, New York | 23,138,000 | ..... |
| 46. Farmers' Loan and Trust Co., New York | 23,045,000 | 2,091,000 |
| 47. Hanover National Bank, New York | 22,673,000 | 1,620,000 |
| 48. Oesterreichische Landerbank | 22,341,000 | 1,522,000 |
| 49. Oesterreichische Ungarische Bank | 21,869,000 | 9,506,000 |
| 50. London and Southwestern Bank | 21,521,000 | 1,787,000 |
| 51. Union Bank of Australia, Ltd. (August 30) | 21,335,000 | 6,767,000 |
| 52. Central Trust Co., New York (June 30) | 21,293,000 | 1,054,000 |
| 53. First National Bank, New York | 21,210,000 | 3,272,000 |
| 54. Commercial Banking Co. of Sydney | 21,156,000 | ..... |
| 55. Yokohama Specie Bank | 21,077,000 | ..... |
| 56. Standard Bank of South Africa | 20,900,000 | 6,082,000 |
| 57. Anglo-Austrian Bank | 20,786,000 | 1,049,000 |
| 58. Bank of Liverpool | 20,277,000 | 3,462,000 |
| 59. London and Provincial Bank | 20,246,000 | 2,491,000 |
| 60. Yorkshire Penny Bank | 20,160,000 | ..... |
| 61. Bank of Scotland (February 28, 1914) | 20,061,000 | 12,508,000 |

[1] Approximate.

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was more competition between the great banking combinations than there had ever been between the small separate institutions. It would be impossible to have banking competition fiercer than it is to-day.

Sir Edward Holden did not agree with the supposition that the policy of amalgamation would go on much longer, for the simple reason that there were so very few banks left to amalgamate, unless, perhaps, some of the big banks combined.

Finally, Sir Edward Holden pointed out that this strengthening of the banks by amalgamation had an important bearing on the vital question of the nation's gold reserves. Sir Edward, as is well known from his speeches and his actions, is an ardent reformer; indeed, our most ardent reformer in this respect. Amalgamation, he said, increased the power of the banks and enabled them to keep larger amounts of gold. He recalled that the chairman of the Wilts and Dorset Bank, when it was taken over by Lloyds two months ago, pointed out that larger gold reserves were being called for, and they would have to increase theirs. The large banks had kept the country out of crises, and by further strengthening the position by amalgamation, enabling the banks to increase our gold reserves, they might prove in times of war and in times of financial stress the salvation of the nation.

Despite Sir Edward Holden's *apologia*, there are many thoughtful merchants and bankers who feel that it is inexpedient that there should be any further combination of banking resources in England. This feeling is not due so much to the fear that the power acquired will be abused as to the belief that it will entirely obliterate the personal relationship which formerly existed between the head of a banking institution and its customers. In old times the depositor felt that the manager of the bank was his counselor and friend, to whom he could look for advice and sympathy and perhaps some credit indulgence in times of perplexity and trouble. Nowadays a bank with a thousand branches and five hundred million dollars of deposits must be managed along lines that are entirely impersonal, and individuality and character count for little.

There is also the difficulty of getting competent and responsible managers for each of the thousand branches, and the problem of vicarious administration, to say nothing of the menace implied in the fact that if rumors seriously affecting the credit of the institution came to be believed it would be almost impossible to meet a run which would bring depositors to demand their money at one thousand separate bank windows. In America we have learned that there is a point beyond which the principle of consolidation cannot be applied without impairing efficiency and economy and provoking public disfavor, and it commences to look as if that point had been reached in bank consolidation in Europe.

### The Postal Embargo on International Newspaper Circulation.

The great newspaper called the "London Times" by Americans, but invariably described as "The Times" by Englishmen, is now sold for one penny (two cents) a copy in London.

It is published on 313 days of the year. This makes its cost, if bought in London, $6.26 a year. The annual subscription rate, if mailed to an address in Great Britain or Ireland, is £1 19s., or, say, $9.55, and subscribers elsewhere, including those in the British Colonies and the United States, must pay £3 18s., or, say, $19.10, to receive the "Times" regularly. This means that the post-office charges increase the cost of the paper by about fifty per cent to subscribers in the United Kingdom outside of London, and triple its cost to subscribers in the British colonies and foreign countries. An Englishman residing in Paris, Gibraltar, the United States, or India must pay $12.94 postage per annum on a copy of the "Times," which the publishers sell for $6.26.

The same statement is approximately applicable to all the English newspapers and magazines. The newspaper rate within the Kingdom is ½d. (1 cent) per copy irrespective of weight up to five pounds per package containing not more than one newspaper. Although this seems low, it is very high when compared with the American publishers' rate of one cent per pound in bulk for the transmission of newspapers and magazines within the United States. It costs one cent to send an English newspaper anywhere in England or Ireland, and the maximum distance that it has to be carried cannot possibly exceed eight or nine hundred miles. In the United States an American newspaper can be sent three or four thousand miles, and even to Alaska and the Philippines, at the bulk rate of one cent per pound, which is probably an average of not over a quarter of a cent for each newspaper.

In the United States, as in England, the rate on newspapers for foreign countries is one cent for two ounces, except that the

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American Government carries newspapers to its colonies at one cent per pound, while the English Government treats the English colonies and dependencies as foreign countries in so far as newspaper postage is concerned. The result is that the circulation of English newspapers outside of Great Britain is greatly restricted, and even within the Kingdom the great metropolitan journals are not much read away from London. In the United States the New York papers are in Boston or Washington by half-past eight in the morning of the day of issue.

In Paris or Brussels, which are hardly farther away from London than Washington is from New York, the English morning papers are not to be had until the evening, and in Liverpool or Manchester the person who reads a London paper regularly is the great exception. In so far as the British colonies are concerned, the English papers have a comparatively small circulation, and in the United States they are but little known, except that a stray copy of the "Times" or the "Spectator" may occasionally be found at an expensive club or is quoted by an editor, who thereupon is charged with a taste for what is regarded as exotic journalism. On the other hand, American papers have practically no circulation in Europe. The few Americans who live on this side the Atlantic take the Paris "Herald," but our great dailies are obtained with difficulty and are rarely seen. Our magazine publishers have made an effort to extend their circulation among the English-speaking people outside America, but have not been signally successful because the cost of postage is prohibitive.

I have gone into the details of the matter because I am impressed with the thought that the solidarity of the English-speaking people would be immensely increased if the circulation of all newspapers printed in English were untrammeled by postal charges that are practically prohibitive. We are living in an age in which the radius of human influence has become immensely extended through the instrumentality of the inexpensive newspapers. It may be said that our attitude in regard to nearly every question of life is the result of what we read.

We are too busy to do much talking except as we ejaculate on the telephone. Whatever thought we give to matters that affect us individually or nationally is inspired by what we read. It is true that the influence of the old-fashioned newspaper "leader" or "editorial" has diminished, but the influence of the interview or the reportorial coloring with which an incident is described has immensely increased.

To see ourselves as others see us in their newspapers, to get a view of world affairs other than the one we can obtain through the atmosphere of our own environment, would broaden our intelligence, increase our tolerance, and greatly promote international sympathy and understanding.

A very thoughtful English journalist said to me the other day that the world was rapidly becoming "Anglo-American" rather than Anglo-Saxon, and that humanity was, in his opinion, correspondingly benefited.

Is it not possible greatly to accelerate this tendency by removing the embargo which the postage rates put upon the international circulation of newspapers? It seems to be a question to which the statesmen who have to do with the post-offices on both sides of the Atlantic would address themselves with great benefit to the world at large, and the English-speaking world in particular.

London, England, July, 1914.

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# THE SPECTATOR

IT was at the close of an unusually sultry day in late July that the Spectator found himself wandering one evening in the main street of Ste. Philomène-des-Monts, a village near Lake Maskinonge in the Laurentian Mountain district, Province of Quebec: the oldest mountain formation in the world, geologists tell us. All day long the mercury had been climbing towards and above the 90° mark; scarcely a breath of wind had come to bring relief, a most unusual thing in these regions. Silence and inaction had reigned in the village; and even in the summer colony of sojourners near the lake a mile away every one had been too prostrated to do more than lounge on the beach or in the fragrant groves of fir and balsam on the hillsides. But a delicious breeze had sprung up at sunset, galvanizing idlers into life; the villagers sauntered out on their galleries and began to exchange comments on the crushing nature of the heat during the day just closing, and outsiders began arriving in their carriages. Occasionally a motor car from the lakeside dwellers came whirring along, provoking execrations from the drivers of rustic steeds, which, unaccustomed yet to seeing vehicles speeding by without visible means of propulsion, reared and pranced protestingly at such uncanny innovation.

Lights now began to shine in the house windows, while in the most important of the stores the vivid flooding of acetylene gaslight threw everything out in sharp relief; the evening trade, always a brisk one in summer, had begun. The customers were nearly all women—mothers of families, who always need something for one or other of their brood, and young girls who, all *en toilette* for the event of the day, the arrival of the evening train from Montreal, came here in the meantime to buy candy, ribbon, perfume, powder, or whatever their money ran to. At the street corners stood groups of young men smoking cigarettes; the score or so of older ones on the "gallery," or veranda, of the hotel smoked pipes laden with *tabac du pays*—Canadian tobacco. They talked unceasingly as they sat and blew whiffs that spread afar the malodorous incense from the native weed. The Spectator noticed one word that cropped up continually in their discussion—*piastre, piastres*, seemed the burden of their speech. But when election time draws near it is not of *piastres* that the gallery-haunters discourse. *Les Rouges* and *Les Bleus* (Liberals and Conservatives) are the theme then: each comes in for eulogy or obloquy, according to the political leanings of the speaker.

As the long, shrill whistle announced that the train was rounding the curve, a rapid adjournment of the floating population to the station took place, and the Spectator followed. After the excitement-seekers had seen all they wanted from the platform of the station, the post-office was their next Mecca. Once the mail was distributed, the laughing, jostling crowd dispersed; half of them apparently only came to see the other half get their papers and letters. Soon the big lamp in front of the post-office was put out and the village sank into quietness.

But to-night was a *bon soir*, so the Spectator was told. That means an evening when *cavaliers* are received. *Cavalier*, be it understood, is Canadian French for "steady company." On Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday evenings the gallery is consecrated to the use of the daughter or daughters of the house and their attendant swains. On other evenings other members of the family have their innings. Generally the stout mother is to be seen, slowly swaying in the rocking-chair, keeping a special eye on her younger olive branches disporting themselves near by and a general one on the doings of her neighbors. To-night Angelina was in evidence, a slim white figure, occupying the rocking-chair, while Edwin, sitting very close to her on the gallery railing, smoked a cigarette, and they communed in undertones. From the open parlor windows of the hotel all at once came the strains of the Intermezzo from "Cavalleria Rusticana" as uttered by a gramophone.

The Spectator sauntered off to the top of a hill near the church just beyond the hotel. In the daytime he had seen the surpassing view of valley, lake, and mountains that lay like a panorama at its foot. But now the darkness allowed him only to follow the direction of the highroad by the dots of glim-



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mering light that showed where houses stood. A mile away a coruscation of bright dots told where the hotel and cottages were, close to the lake; from there the road skirted the lake as far as it went, and then the lights strung along, farther and farther apart. Forty years ago, so the Spectator has learned, this beautiful and fertile valley was a tract of new land. Brush fences separated the farms and black stumps disfigured the fields. Men did all the work of cultivation unaided save by their horses and oxen; now the seeders, binders, mowing-machines, and threshers have changed the lot of the farmer. In those days well-sweeps stood near every farm; to-day windmills are seen or the sturdy heart-beat of the turbine wheel is heard. In those old days it was no unusual thing to see the farmers' wives, anxious to spare their overworked husbands, staggering along with two great pails of water from the wells; and in winter, when their husbands were away, *au chantier*, they would water the cattle themselves, tramping often knee-deep through snow and slush. It must have been no sinecure, the lot of a Canadian farmer's wife in those days. There were no creameries and cheese factories then scattered at short intervals all through the farming country; all the milk had to be made into butter with the old-fashioned dasher churn.

From the front veranda of the lakeside hotel, one bright Sunday morning, the Spectator watched the church parade go by *à la messe*. Concords and covered buggies, many of them drawn by pairs of horses, drove along, shining with piano polish and easy-rolling. The Spectator was told that the hand of progress was just as visible in this procession as in other phases of the habitants' lives here. Years ago, instead of concords and buggies, *charettes-à-poche* and buckboards made up the bulk of the conveyances used. The occupants are just as different from their predecessors as the vehicles. The *charettes-à-poche* used to bump along springlessly on the rough roads of that epoch under the driver and his wife, he in his best *étoffe-du-pays* suit, she in her Sunday dress of black or dark material, innocent of trimming; her headgear nearly always a coarse straw shade hat with a band of black ribbon round the crown. The people in the church parade of to-day seemed as up to date in their apparel as any city dwellers. It is the catalogues of the great department stores, the Spectator learned, American and Canadian, the hordes of hustling commercial travelers invading every Quebec village, and the fashion patterns that have each and all contributed to lift the handicap of sometimes ugly and old-fashioned garb from the people whom fate has ordained to dwell far from the centers of population.

The sun shone out of a cloudless sky, but there was a cool, refreshing breeze that August morning when the Spectator started out on a day-long drive through the hills that give Ste. Philomène-des-Monts the last part of her name. The clash of the mowing-machine was heard, and long lines of heavy, fragrant grass lay in the fields. At first the road lay through the valley, the lake to the left. This is the richest piece of farming land in the parish—the prosperous-looking houses and large barns testified to that. Here and there were to be seen survivals of a past epoch—old "weathered" houses with sagging roofs and few and small windows; but the majority of the dwellings were higher and squarer shaped than the types of the last generation's, well painted, and with metal roofs and many and good-sized windows. The Spectator was surprised to see that in many cases the double windows necessitated by the rigors of the Quebec winter had been left up, with no provision for admitting air beyond a few round holes bored in the lower sash.

After some miles the road took a turn at right angles, and the horses began to climb a steep, stony hill road that twisted and turned but went up and up. The Spectator was not allowed to look around until a certain height was gained. Then the horses stopped of their own accord, no doubt from long habit, and he glanced behind him. Far below shimmered the lake, encircled by the blue Laurentides and flecked here and there by a white sailboat; at its northeast end the Masiknonge River flowed out to swell the broad St. Lawrence, twenty-odd miles away. As the Spectator gazed at the panorama stretched out miles below, the hoarse sound of a whistle clove the still air—the noontime signal of the great lumber mill that made an ugly gash in the wooded shores of the lake to the west.

The road now seemed to cut through first-growth woods: tall hemlocks, maples, and

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beech trees stood at either side of it. But after several miles a clearing would appear with a log house in the center; evidently passers-by were rare, for the children would stare open-eyed at the doors, and faces would peer out of each window and remain there till we were out of view. The Spectator commented on the loneliness of the lives spent amid such surroundings, and was told that a great change was taking place among the dwellers in these back roads. Once they used to make the Sunday trip to church serve for buying the necessaries of life, getting the mail, and transacting all the business done in the village; a drive there simply for relaxation was looked upon as a wicked waste of time. Now, when there is no press of farm work, they come to the village to see moving pictures if any are on exhibition, visit the shops, and go to call on their friends.

Every now and then the Spectator in passing through the more settled parts had noticed a house with its doors and windows boarded up, yet with crops growing near it and other indications that it was not exactly abandoned. He was told that in these cases the family had gone away simply for a given time, intending to return. When there is a backward season or a drought or a bad lumbering season—for the farmers in Quebec look upon lumbering as a very important side issue, the richer ones taking up contracts, the poorer working as hands—or when sickness or mischance brings straitened days, then Jean Baptiste makes up his mind to go to "the States." He rents his farm, sells his live stock and his furniture, boards up his doors and windows, and disappears with his wife and children. The larger the family is in this case, the better, for above a certain age each member is a wage-earner. A year or two passes by, sometimes three or four, and still the farm is tilled by alien hands. But at last a rumor is heard that Jean is coming back, and soon he arrives: Monsieur and Madame Jean very bright and smiling, well dressed and solvent-looking, the children too all *endimanchés* on this their return to their native heath. It is true they all look very pale and thin; they have toiled hard and unceasingly, from the father down to the youngest worker, and factory life is not conducive to health. But they have lifted the mortgage, and here they are with money to buy new implements and stock and to start life anew in this beloved Canada of theirs.

Not only do they accumulate money, absorb new ideas, and gain sharpened mentality; they also grow more or less familiar with the English tongue in their absences. The Spectator noticed how the rural population in the Province of Quebec seemed to be adopting words from English and weaving them into the vernacular. For instance, he heard a man say, "*Je vais prendre un walk;*" and they even add the French infinitive ending to an English word, *je vais walker*. Slang terms, too, are getting woven in; thus, the Spectator heard a fault-finding woman described as *trop kickeuse*.

The Spectator on this long drive passed through several hamlets, all named after saints. The nomenclature in Quebec is all either religious or Indian. The French Canadian is devoted to his church and its services. The Spectator was told that the *habitants* did not appear to entertain the firm belief in the infallibility of the priests that once possessed them; but they still place implicit faith in the efficacy of relics, and hold the saints in great veneration. An example of this struck the Spectator. A man told him that an uncle of his, very anxious to finish his fall plowing, resolved to plow upon an All Saints' Day, which is a *fête d'obligation*. His wife and daughter remonstrated, but in vain. He started out, but soon returned, looking very solemn, and put away his plow and horses. Even as he had plowed, he told his wife, the furrows had filled with blood. There was no mistaking the absolute belief the narrator felt in this tale. Another story was that God once made a pact with Satan that all the infants born between midnight mass on Christmas Eve and the first mass celebrated on Christmas morning should belong to the powers of darkness. But the priests get ahead of Satan in this way—they never quite finish the midnight mass, leaving a short piece which is not sung until just before the first mass Christmas morning.

The Spectator thought over all these things as the horses trotted on through the villages, all so much alike: a cluster of small, humble dwellings, with one feature standing out in all—the great church with upward-pointing spire in the midst, like a mother bird with her brood. He could not help wondering what the province of Quebec would be like without this watchful power that looks so unfailingly after the poorest as well as the

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richest. As evening set in and darkness began settling down on the shortening August evening, the Spectator saw at one of the wayside crosses so frequent in these country roads a group of people kneeling at their evening prayer: men, women, and children all murmuring together, rosaries in hand. So absorbed were they in their prayer that even the little children did not turn their heads to view the passers-by, who, though of another faith, could not help recalling the words: "Where two or three are gathered together in My name, there am I in the midst of them."

# THE NEW BOOKS

## THE BALKANS[1]

Professor Sloane, of Columbia University, who has paid three visits to the Balkan Peninsula, tells us that the "Vulgarians or Bulgarians," originally an Altaic horde, overran large portions of the Balkan Peninsula, as nomads do, but were driven back by the Bosnians, Servians, Albanians, and Turks into districts then settled to a considerable extent by southern Slavs. These the Bulgarians subjugated. The author continues:

But, as so often occurs when a lower overcomes a higher civilization, the conquerors adopted the religion, manners, and speech of the conquered. They began at once to merge with the earlier people, and so inaugurated a process which made the Bulgarian of to-day a Greek Catholic, which gave him a pure Slavic tongue with only trifling modifications. . . .

In the northern districts a few of them exhibit a fairly strong Asiatic type, almost Mongolian; to tne southward they are more and more purely Slav.

The influence of the Bulgarian Court, our author declares, "seems to exert but little power in securing widespread and permeating influences of refinement throughout the country at large." This, he says, is no reflection upon the members of that Court, for "the Bulgarians are an obdurate folk, a peasant people with peasant faults and peasant virtues." He adds:

Turbulent scenes occur in their National Assembly, and frequently arouse a suspicion elsewhere that the Government is insecure. They are, however, not much worse, though perhaps more frequent, than those which occur in the great capitals of the Western world, at Westminster or in Washington, not to mention Paris or Vienna. The Bulgarians are a testy folk, quick to cry out, quick to act.

The influence of American ideas in Bulgaria has been and remains enormous, thanks to the American seats of learning on the Bosporus. . . . The founders of the new Bulgaria had been educated in large numbers at Robert College, the American institution of learning at Constantinople, where they had been taught at least the principles of common honesty in public finance, the practice of which had kept her, in marked contrast to both Servia and Greece, mistress of her own purse and independent of foreign financial control.

The author draws other interesting distinctions, which ought to be quoted, between Bulgaria and Servia—nations often supposed to be fairly alike:

Their character [that of the Bulgarians] is very unlike that of the Servians and Rumanians. Disposed as they are to quick surges of passion and prompt revenge, they are also intelligent, laborious, and thrifty. Like the Servians, they are a peasant folk, but both their farming and gardening are admirable, which cannot be said of the Servians.

Bulgaria, according to Professor Sloane, honors nationality based on both language and creed, to the exclusion of every other; Servia, on the other hand, emphasizes blood and social institutions as the basis of determining nationality.

As to the Servian Court, the author declares that the blot of conspiracy still deprives it of any luster. Nor have the Servians developed any extraordinary military leadership. But he adds:

They have shown admirable powers of organization, co-operation, and self-restraint; they have fought stubbornly and even gallantly; and their military leaders, if not brilliant, have at least been safe.

The result of all this must be the final emancipation of Servia from the galling economic tyranny of her neighbors, a substantial increase of territory, and a sobriety in the conduct of her affairs. Her temptation, of course, is the "Great Idea" of the Great Servia, but she has before her the awful warning of what happened

[1] The Balkans. By William M. Sloane. Eaton & Mains, New York. $1.50.

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to Bulgaria in the mad pursuit of the corresponding "Great Bulgaria" idea.

As regards the Montenegrins, we read that they "dwell on tradition and song and on the mighty deeds of their ancestors;" that "their tempers are easily fired to warlike energy;" that "they are temperate in food and, for the most part, in drink;" that "they are hospitable, polite, and obliging;" and that, according to the best judges, "the stranger, male or female, is safe in body and estate in the remotest districts."

The Albanians Professor Sloane calls the most remarkable folk of the European Continent; he tells us that they are "absolutely without any close, or at least calculable, affinity with any other, whether of race, speech, or institutions; still using the oldest known European language; retaining, without unity of religion, habitat, or manners, a unity of nature, appearance, and character which sets them absolutely apart from the surrounding populations, with whom they mingle freely but do not coalesce."

Modern Greece, says the author, "owes much to the Albanians, who, during the years of their [the Greeks'] revolt against Turkey, came frequently, though spasmodically, to assist in their struggle for liberty. So grateful were the Greeks that they adopted as their national costume the picturesque garb of their allies."

Professor Sloane praises the Greek Court, especially the present "excellent ruler, familiar throughout his life with the qualities of his people, educated in the best traditions of royalty by his parents and his consort, and exhibiting substantial capacity alike for statesmanship and for warfare."

Rumania scouts, so Professor Sloane asserts, the idea that she is a Balkan State, and holds herself "vastly superior in all respects to her Slav neighbors on both sides." The Rumanian system of education is "quite above the average of Eastern Europe," and the Rumanian political ideal eschews "the general Balkan tendency of dwelling mainly on the grandeur of a past, somehow to be reproduced in a visionary, dreamy future."

As to Turkey, now almost eliminated as a Balkan State, Professor Sloane concedes that its inhabitants are generally in character "serious, courteous, hospitable, and brave." The normal Turkish gentleman, we learn, is "a most agreeable and even lovable person." Of him the author says:

> He is domestic, hospitable within his possibilities, companionable, interested in you and in such a life as touches his interests; he has a dignity, a repose, a pleasant way, which are delightful. . . . Tolerant and democratic—both in a contemptuous sort of way—the Turk is also in ordinary life a kindly, gentle soul.

But he is also, we learn, "fanatical to the verge of brutality." This has, of course, been abundantly proved by history. Terrible as has been the evidence of such brutality, it is still more terrible to contemplate the atrocities committed by other peoples of the Balkan Peninsula. Concerning those of the recent wars, Professor Sloane remarks:

> The atrocities practiced by Turks . . . unquestionably set an awful example, but that these so-called Christians have perpetrated worse horrors no longer admits of any doubt. . . . There is a profound impression throughout the Western world that the Bulgarian outrages were the most frightful perpetrated, with the exception of those committed by the Turkish bashi-bazuks, and that during the conflict these outrages were well known at headquarters and were not reprobated sufficiently even to mitigate them.

Will there be a renewal of war? Not soon, in the author's opinion. He thinks that "the Balkan fires are likely to be banked for an age to come." Southeastern Europe is, as he says, "an ethnological museum," but, despite constant rivalries, the Balkan powers have come to be like "boys who have fought it out; they have a wholesome mutual respect one for the other, and their very wounds, though not mortal, ache, and will take long to heal."

There is another factor:

> All the rest of Europe is weary of its increasing armaments. The experience which the great Powers have so recently had makes for better acquaintance among them and their peoples; for a higher degree of self-respect; and for the continuation of the general equilibrium, which, however nice in its adjustment, nevertheless exists. . . . To permit any renewal of a warfare likely to disturb or destroy the existing solution would demand on the part of all other nations a still further burden of taxation and of intolerable extravagance for armies and fleets.

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**Duchess of Wrexe (The).** By Hugh Walpole. The George H. Doran Company, New York. $1.40.

The impression made by Mr. Walpole's novel called "Fortitude" is confirmed by this story. In all that pertains to careful, thoughtful, and thorough work in fiction Mr. Walpole stands high among the new writers. In this novel he

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has a striking figure in his Duchess, a terrible old lady who rules her children and grandchildren and her social circle by sheer dint of the assumption of authority. The author classifies English society into autocrats, aristocrats, and democrats, and the Duchess of Wrexe is emphatically an autocrat. Some of her family fear and revere her; others fear and hate her. The granddaughter, who, next to the Duchess, is the most prominent figure in the book, belongs to the latter class, and her whole life as a girl and as a married woman is strangely affected by this unhappy attitude of mind. The development of the theme is admirable. The greatest lack of the book is perhaps that of buoyancy.

Essentially this is a novel of character and social analysis rather than of action, but to readers who are not given to sensation the story interest as well as the workmanship will appeal.

**Happy Irish (The).** By Harold Begbie. The George H. Doran Company, New York. $1.25.

Mr. Begbie is not here, he tells us, either advocating or opposing Home Rule, although it is hard for him to keep off the topic of politics, and he expresses the belief that Unionists and Home Rulers must concur in the belief that England's whole past policy toward Ireland may be expressed in two words—crime and blunder. The author talks about the Irish people rather than the Irish question; in the south he found them "charming, delightful, virtuous, and sagacious." But in Belfast he found "squalor, poverty, desperate ugliness, and deadening depravity." Thus does political interest and prepossession crop up throughout. There are interesting and entertaining sketches of men, women, and children, and the narrative part of the book is lively.

**New International Year-Book, 1913 (The).** Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. $5.

The latest volume of this invaluable annual publication should be specially useful to those who would gain a comprehensive view of recent developments in such much-discussed regions as Ireland, China, the Balkans, and, particularly, Mexico—indeed, owing to the increased interest in all Central and South American topics, the "Year-Book," we note, now gives special attention to subjects in this field.

**Empress Frederick (The): A Memoir.** Anonymous. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. $2.50.

This volume should appeal to any one who sojourned in Berlin during the life there of the Empress Frederick. At an early age the eldest daughter of Queen Victoria became the wife of the German Crown Prince, later Frederick III. She was thus mother of William II. She was a remarkable and interesting woman. As her biographer says: "Had she been born in a private station she would have attained certainly distinction, and very possibly eminence, in some branch of art, letters, or science. Her rank, far from crushing and stunting her powers, had the effect of diffusing her intellectual interests over many fields, and perhaps laid her open to the charge of dilettanteism. But such a charge cannot really be maintained in view of the solid constructive work which she achieved, both in the field of philanthropy and in that of the application of art to industry."

The Empress was a notable example of a royal personage never apparently checked in intellectual and spiritual growth by the restraints of her position. One did not need to hear things about her to believe this; one had but to see her as she appeared, with her democratic and affable manner, during some shopping expedition with her daughters, or on a Sunday with her husband at church. One could read in her wholesome face a natural enthusiasm for all that was good and serviceable to humanity. One had but to look around in Berlin to see the fruitage of her effort—the Victoria Lyceum, for instance, and other educational establishments, such as the Victoria and Frederick-William Institute and the Pestalozzi-Froebel House. The author might have given greater space to these achievements.

The book will, however, probably prove even more interesting to those who like to dwell upon the gossip of Berlin concerning the Empress's English independence. This she showed in certain ways not always tactful, as, for instance, when she insisted on having her bedrooms hung with English chintz. Her influence over her husband, whose devotion to her was one of the noblest traits of a noble character, was great. In this influence Prince Bismarck recognized a rival to his own. Certainly he never underestimated the Empress's ability, and was prepared for her natural antipathy to his own resistance to English influences. He opposed her in many ways—some of them petty and unworthy ways. He did her injustice, nor was it atoned for by his own tardy acknowledgment in his "Thoughts and Remembrances."

The intimate history of the epoch of William I and of Frederick III and the Empress Frederick and of Bismarck is still to be written. The present volume, like the "Thoughts and Remembrances," contains some hints of what that history may be.

**Natural Law in Science and Philosophy.** By Émile Boutroux. Translated by Fred Rothwell. The Macmillan Company, New York. $1.75.

M. Boutroux thus states his object in these brief addresses given at the Sorbonne in 1892–3: "To discover whether the idea of natural law is the same for the scientist as it is for the philosopher." It is in an ethical interest that he pursues the inquiry through the various types of natural laws as set forth by the sciences. Over against the laws that represent the nature of things is the question, "What becomes of human freedom

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and responsibility?" Against the assumption of scientists that all things are absolutely determined by natural law, M. Boutroux shows that there is more or less of the indeterminate and contingent in all science from logic and mathematics to sociology. He points to the fundamental difference, which science cannot realize as philosophy does, between quantity and quality, between things and ideas. The laws of nature are simply the methods for adapting things to the mind, and subjecting them to be shaped by the will. So far from rendering free will illusory, the mechanism of nature renders it efficacious. This critique by an eminent French Academician is an effective rejoinder to the pretensions of scientific fatalists.

**Book of Common Prayer Among the Nations of the World.** By William Muss-Arnold, B.D., Ph.D. E. S. Gorham, New York. $3.

This monumental work covers a period of three hundred and sixty-three years, during which a noble liturgy has been translated in whole or in part into some sixscore languages or dialects. During the second half of the sixteenth century it was translated into Latin and Greek for chapel service in the universities and for foreign scholars. Translations into several European languages appeared in the seventeenth century. After the formation in 1698 of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, and in 1701 of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts, a distinctively missionary interest appeared in 1715 in a version of portions of the Prayer-Book for the Mohawks of New York. The Church Missionary Society was founded in 1799, and thenceforward translations rapidly multiplied. The greater part of those included in this volume was made by missionaries.

This elaborate volume, preliminary to a larger work, now near completion, on the Book of Common Prayer and books connected with its origin and growth, has been written from the point of view of a librarian and historian. Its descriptive and critical account of every translation, including all editions and revisions, is accompanied with biographical memoranda of the authors. To each of its sections is appended a bibliography with a list of authorities consulted. Finally, a conspectus of the entire history from 1550 to 1913 is given in chronological tables. That an American librarian has written this record, the first yet made, is peculiarly gratifying in view of our colonial indebtedness to the "S. P. C. K.," by which it is now published in London.

**Lombard Towns of Italy.** By Egerton R. Williams, Jr. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. $1.75.

Sometimes it seems a pity that there are any railways in Italy; it seems as if every one ought to be compelled to journey more slowly, and therefore more understandingly. In these days of motors one does journey, to be sure, with considerable rapidity. But the advantage of a motor trip over a railway trip lies in this, that one may at will stop his machine before some interesting palace or park, and thus have a chance to see what he would not see if carried swiftly past by a railway train to some central station far away from the palace or park.

Mr. Williams addresses himself to the serious and unhurried traveler. We feel complimented by being talked to as if we, the readers, had already absorbed a good deal of information, and therefore were able to contrast these descriptions of Lombard towns with what we know about other towns. Indeed, as one glances at the map prefacing the text, and looks at the names of the places, from Varese in the northwest to Saronno, Milan, Pavia, and Voghera, coming south; and then, across to the west, skirting the Apennines, to Piacenza, Cremona, and Gonzaga; then north to Mantua and Verona; then west to Peschiera, Brescia, Bergamo, and so back again to the blessed Lake region, he is compassing a square rich indeed in historic associations and lovely in scenic impression. Who would not like to take a motor or cycle trip, absorbing the country which lies between each of these places and making each a night's station? Such a traveler should by all means have Mr. Williams's book in his pocket.

**Cradle of Mankind (The).** By the Rev. W. A. Wigram, D.D., and Edgar T. A. Wigram. The Macmillan Company, New York. $4.50.

To most persons Kurdistan is a geographical expression. Tradition connects it with the Garden of Eden, with Noah, and with Abraham. Its history records the very dawn of civilization. The every-day life of its present inhabitants is appropriately patriarchal. As befits "the cradle of mankind," Kurdistan is not an accessible country. It contains much rugged scenery. Few foreigners see it. The opportunity to reside in Kurdistan came to one of the authors of the present volume through his membership in the "Archbishop of Canterbury's Assyrian Mission." This organization has been maintained by successive archbishops for a quarter of a century. It exists at the request of the Patriarch of the Nestorian Church. It aims to educate the clergy and laity of that body without disturbing them in their membership of their own ancient communion. The book bulges with information for the student of geography, ethnology, and history as well as for the casual reader.

**Making of the Nations: Germany.** By A. W. Holland. The Macmillan Company, New York. $2.

By their disposition of the great commercial corporations at home and by their progress in trade abroad the Germans are teaching the world a very modern political economy. All this material increase has, of course, a background, political as well as economic. In order

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to understand political and economic changes in the Fatherland one needs to have such a book as Dr. Henderson's "Short History of Germany" or the present volume at hand. Such books are useful because they are not too prolix for the general reader. Mr. Holland's volume, while not so picturesquely written as is Dr. Henderson's, is a notably valuable book because it is the first to recount German history from the earliest times to the close of 1913.

**New Guides to Old Masters.** By John C. Van Dyke. **Vienna, Budapest.** Charles Scribner's Sons New York. $1.

**New Guides to Old Masters.** By John C. Van Dyke. **Madrid.** Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 75c.

Two little volumes have just appeared beginning a new series of art books, called "New Guides to Old Masters." The books are written by John C. Van Dyke, already well known and appreciated for his "Studies in Pictures," "The Meaning of Pictures," "What is Art?" and "Art for Art's Sake." The first volumes have to do with Vienna and Budapest and with Madrid respectively. Criticisms of pictures at Madrid and Budapest do not appeal to as many as does criticism of the pictures in Vienna, because more people go to Vienna. The Imperial Gallery there is, as Mr. Van Dyke asserts, not inferior to the best north European galleries in examples of great painters and in the representation of various schools. This new series should prove of much value. First, as to aim. We have ordinary descriptive guide-books and catalogues a-plenty. In contrast with them, Mr. Van Dyke aims to bring out what he well calls "the gist of the picture"—that is to say, its value or meaning as art. He emphasizes the man behind the paint-brush, not the saints painted.

We thus have some critical basis for discriminating between the good and the bad. Second, the books are not "cluttered up" by references to inferior pictures; only the best are chosen for comment. Third, in giving the relative rank of pictures, a seductive system of "starring" has been followed. Mention without a star indicates a picture of merit; one star means a picture of more than average importance; two stars indicate a work of high rank; and three stars signify a great masterpiece. Finally, the various descriptions and notes betray a first-hand, intimate sympathy between the author and his subject. We are not surprised to learn that the notes were written in the galleries and before the pictures themselves.

**History of Diplomacy in the International Development of Europe (A). Vol. III. The Diplomacy of the Age of Absolutism.** By David Jayne Hill, LL.D. Longmans, Green & Co., New York. $6.

Anything from the pen of David Jayne Hill is sure of respectful attention. Dr. Hill's work as Assistant Secretary of State, as Minister to Switzerland and then to Holland, and as Ambassador to Germany is still fresh in the public mind and appreciation. But he has appeared before the world in the capacity of a historian of diplomacy as well as in that of an active diplomat. For a long time he has been at work on the third volume of his exhaustive history. That volume has now appeared. Like its predecessor, it represents the union of a broad historical perspective with practical personal experience. It has to do with the Age of Absolutism. The previous volumes were on "The Struggle for Universal Empire" and "The Establishment of Territorial Sovereignty."

The Age of Absolutism was the period in history when men sought refuge from anarchy by concentrating power in the hands of a few. As Dr. Hill affirms, "It is not an exaggeration to say that for more than a hundred years the destinies of Europe were determined by a half-dozen men in each generation, and their motives of action were largely personal." But Dr. Hill does not explain this period in terms of purely individual action. The explanation, according to him, lies in applying the prevailing theory of the State. It is impossible to comprehend the history of any particular nation without considering the influence upon it of international environment—that is, to ask, How does a nation maintain its existence and accomplish its destiny in the midst of neighbors and competitors? First, there was the moral restraint of one central authority. But the contest for the sole possession of that authority (as shown in Dr. Hill's "Struggle for Universal Empire") ended in the failure to solve the problem in this way. The next solution was the formation of national dynasties (shown in Dr. Hill's "Establishment of Territorial Sovereignty"). This brings us to 1648, the year of the Peace of Westphalia, which ended the Thirty Years' War. This year opened a new era in European political development. Peace was imposed because there was no longer any profit in war. Yet every one knew there would be a renewal of the struggle for preponderance, and France, under Louis XIV, was first to typify the "Age of Absolutism." It might have been called the "Age of Louis XIV," for the prominence of that monarch is seen in the events of the period, whether regarding France, Holland, England, Austria, Spain, Italy, Germany, Sweden, or Poland.

Perhaps it would seem too much to say that the present volume is fascinating in style, and yet to the student of history it is hardly less than fascinating. On every page one feels the hand not only of the scholar but of the gentleman—of one by instinct and training fitted to deal with problems in the large, and who to an exact and ample erudition has brought the practical and wide acquaintance with men and affairs developed under our great Secretary of State John Hay.

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# THE READER'S VIEW

### KEROSENE AS AUTOMOBILE FUEL

A recent issue of The Outlook has an interesting letter from Rear-Admiral C. W. Chester, U.S.N., in reply to an article by Mr. Waldemar Kaempffert which appeared in The Outlook under the caption "What Shall We Do for Gasoline?"

Admiral Chester's letter is in line with present opinion that the power-driven vehicle can no longer depend solely on its present fuel. In 1911 523,000 cars were licensed in the United States, and in 1913 the registrations reached 1,128,000, doubling the number in two years.

The premises of Admiral Chester are correct. It is probable that most automobile users would prefer the exhaust odor of alcohol. Alcohol is a feasible automobile fuel. It is also conceded that the potential supply of alcohol is inexhaustible. It can be produced in unlimited quantities; requiring only earth, air, moisture, and sunlight. It is true that "a vast amount of the world's starchy material, and particularly waste material, can be used for power purposes;" also that "alcohol may be produced from an almost infinitely wide range of plants scattered all over the world;" also that "corn cobs may be made to yield sixty gallons of alcohol to the ton, and corn stalks thirty gallons per ton." In fact, one enthusiastic advocate of alcohol has publicly claimed that "alcohol from the corn cobs and stalks of America would supply all required light, heat, and power."

It is obvious that "the production of alcohol is based on the perennial output of the vegetable kingdom," but it is equally obvious that the market price of alcohol will depend on the cost of production and transportation.

When the industrial alcohol bill passed, the writer ventured to predict, in the June, 1907, issue of "Machinery," that "the price of alcohol would probably not be as low as anticipated, and that it would be difficult for a highly artificial or manufactured fuel to compete in cost with oil and gasoline." At that time predictions were freely made, both in Congress and in technical journals, that denatured alcohol would sell at eight cents to twelve cents per gallon. After seven years the price in barrel lots is three times greater than anticipated.

It was supposed that after the removal of the tax farmers would install stills for utilizing waste materials, and the alcohol produced could be used locally for stationary and traction engines and automobiles. Local consumption would save transportation costs of bulky raw material and manufactured alcohol. It was claimed that such stills could be operated by farm labor between seasons, when outside work was impracticable. It was recognized that the small distillery must be located close to the supply of raw material, whether corn cobs or "the wild grasses on remote islands of the Pacific." Only the manufactured article would pay for transportation.

After seven years of tax-free alcohol the only small stills are those illicitly operated. This is easily accounted for, as our modern industries are under the fixed control of economic laws more inflexible than legal enactments. Even if the farm distillery should materialize, this would not involve low-cost alcohol. Cost and selling-price determination are more difficult than the layman or professional man might suppose. Mercantile agencies state that many manufacturers come to grief because of failure to ascertain actual production costs.

But alcohol is used for power in South America, Cuba, Germany, and Russia; albeit in the case of the latter two countries it requires considerable encouragement from paternal governments. In reply to this it may be said that if we reproduce in New York or Illinois the exact economic conditions of labor and raw material existing in Cuba we might produce alcohol in limited quantities at low cost. But a reproduction of German and Russian conditions would not permit the production of alcohol in competition with kerosene.

Distillers recognize that the manufacture of alcohol from waste vegetation is utterly impracticable in America under existing conditions. The large distillery must depend on grains, vegetables, or fruits adapted for alcohol production. If waste vegetation cannot be converted into alcohol locally, it cannot be utilized at all. Waste material does not necessarily involve low-cost production. If it did, gold would be obtained from the ocean, as sea-water contains a trace of gold. But gold can be obtained from the poorest "tailings" at less cost.

The labor cost alone of producing alcohol, either in quantity or heat units, is double that of oil. If we use waste material we further increase production cost. It also costs far more for local distribution. Maximum quantities of oil are handled from well to dealer at minimum labor cost. A moderate rebate in transportation rates is said to have been advantageous in former days to several important industries. There is no anomaly in the fact that labor saving permits a ton of pig iron to be brought from Liverpool to New York at less cost than if moved the short distance across Manhattan Island.

Summarizing the relative economic conditions of oil or gasoline and alcohol:

(1) Existing aggregate labor costs of pumpage, collection, storage, transportation, refining (*i.e.*, manufacturing), and distribution to the local dealer, stated in terms of heat unit labor costs, are much less for kerosene than for alcohol.

(2) Barring rail transportation entirely, the existing large fleets of tank steamers on every ocean and our vast



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system of internal pipe-line distribution give oil an overwhelming advantage over alcohol.

(3) The supposition that high compression automobile alcohol engines could possibly offset the low thermodynamic value of alcohol is unfounded, for precisely the same reason that renders the 38 per cent efficiency Diesel impracticable for automobiles—its weight and consequent increase in upkeep cost.

The writer has tested the adaptability of liquid fuels for combustion engines. His alcohol engines are operating in Cuba and South America. His traction engines are using the refractory red "naphtha" of Russia, and the crude petroleums of Illinois, Kansas, and Wyoming, and distillate in California. He supplied the Japanese Government with kerosene engines for wireless telegraphy during the late war with Russia, and furnished similar engines to the London "Times" during the same war. His kerosene oil engines are now operating the transatlantic cables from Glace Bay, and several thousand kerosene oil traction engines in North and South America, Europe, Asia, and Australia have replaced gasoline tractors for plowing and threshing. The results of this experience may be summarized in the statement that everywhere kerosene is superior to gasoline as a fuel when properly used.

Admiral Chester says, "Do without gasoline and all other petroleum distillates for automobile purposes." But automobile owners will continue to consider fuel cost with quality of service.

A careful consideration of the characteristics of a satisfactory fuel suggests that it should be: (1) obtainable everywhere; (2) in abundant quantity; (3) low in cost; (4) develop maximum power per unit quantity; (5) safe in the garage; (6) quality standardized.

Such a fuel is obtainable in kerosene oil, which combines more advantages than any other fuel.

Finally, is it possible to burn kerosene satisfactorily? It was formerly believed that the only way to do this was to preheat it in some form of vaporizer, or else inject it directly into highly compressed and heated air within the combustion chamber. This view ignored the fact that floating coal dust or floating flour dust are equally subject to explosion without heating.

Basic conditions for complete combustion are: Correct relative proportions of air and fuel; thorough atomization of fuel and mixing with air; and suitable combustion temperatures. Only under these conditions is the kerosene lamp smokeless and odorless. The first oil stoves and kerosene engines were odoriferous abominations. But the "blue flame" stove and the modern oil engine are now equally unobjectionable.

The use of kerosene as an alternative fuel for the automobile is inevitable. The world's production of petroleum has grown from an annual output of a million tons in 1878 to a weekly output of a million tons, and America provides two-thirds of this vast quantity. Alcohol is hopelessly handicapped where oil is abundant and labor costly.

JOHN A. SECOR.

La Porte, Indiana.

### HOW PROHIBITION WORKS IN ALABAMA

About twelve years ago I contributed an article to The Outlook setting forth some facts and figures on the dispensary system of handling the whisky question as compared with the saloon régime in Alabama. In that article I showed that conditions were better where the dispensary operated than where saloons held license. A study of the situation during the past ten or twelve years reveals that this State has made a marvelous record, and the outlook is for the complete destruction of the whisky business. The evolutionary process in the cause of temperance, the educational propaganda so widespread and universally effective, the crystallization of public sentiment in favor of Nation-wide prohibition, have contributed to bringing about a healthier condition in our State. Alabama has now only eight counties in which the legal sale of liquor is allowed, and one of these counties has a dispensary. It is a notable fact that the towns thus handling the problem are the three largest cities, while the others are towns of about 5,000 population. The smaller towns are enjoying the benefits of prohibition, though the illicit sale of liquor through "blind tigers" is a menace in some of the towns, but the greater number of them have outlawed this by methods truly effective. The public mind has become so aroused against the sale of liquor and so confirmed in the conviction that beneficial results obtain where the law is enforced and prohibition is made to prohibit that the courts are enforcing the laws without regard to color or social standing. The circuit courts are fixing penalties commensurate with the violation and gravity of such acts, and even white men are being made to serve time in the coal mines for their open violation of the law.

There is another phase of the problem, however, that must be taken into account, and that is the direful and harmful effects of the "blind tiger" in the rural sections. Here is where the greatest harm is being done. The State laws are very good, but so long as the shipping into the State from other States is permitted the evil will be hard to combat, for it is working a baneful influence among the country boys. The people in these communities are helpless, for the reason that they have no police protection, and the operators of "blind tigers" have the sympathetic shielding of their customers, and county officers are handicapped in getting evidence and finding these violators with "the goods on them." However, some effective work is being accomplished, as the court records show. The last grand jury in this county investigated a large number of cases, and eighty-five per cent

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were for violations of the prohibition law; a number of true bills were returned and convictions secured. The records also show that at each term of the court from two to five murder cases are called, some white men and some black being accused, and in all of the cases whisky was at the base of the trouble, and the defendants were from the rural sections. The disturbing element in this is that it affects the farming interests, the greater portion of the labor here being performed by the Negro; though it is also encouraging to find that the Negro race is making improvement and that good work is being done by them and for them where the prohibition laws are made effective.

There must be some National legislation which will prove effective without conflicting with the State laws, but which will prevent the shipping of whisky into dry territories from adjoining States and neighboring towns.

La Fayette, Alabama. JAMES E. TIMMONS.

### WATTS-DUNTON

Your sketch of the late Theodore Watts-Dunton, in The Outlook for June 20, moves me to write what may appear controversial, though I should prefer that it be regarded more in complement to your criticisms.

You say of "Aylwin" that "the real protagonist is Snowdon." It would indeed be something like blasphemy to be captious over a judgment so poetical. At the same time, has not the character of Philip Aylwin at least equal claim to that rôle? Paradox though it be, it is the dead man who moves the whole story. There is no part more leading than his living spirit with its tragic curse.

In your statement that "it is chiefly on account of his literary friendships that Mr. Watts-Dunton is likely to be remembered," I have more than a profound hope that you are wrong. Thirty years ago the originality and mellowness of his criticism were sufficient to rank him first of all English critics in the estimation of James Russell Lowell. And the "Saturday Review" for May 13, 1914 (about a month before his death), speaks of him as "our foremost critic to-day in poetry, and our wisest."

But it is mainly on account of his authorship of "Aylwin" and "The Coming of Love" (they are complementary) that I venture to say that he is "likely" to be remembered. As a piece of fiction the former may possibly be "defective in many ways," but among them it cannot be counted that it was written in shirt-sleeves, and that its author made cleverness his god, or that the characters are plot-ridden or the style precious. If ever there was a work born out of the travail of a human soul, it is "Aylwin." I have read that the trouble with the author of our day is that he looks upon literature as a craft—not as revelation. "Aylwin" is not the result of craft. It is a book without type, not written for the fiction mart, and, indeed, withheld from publication for many years by reason of the author's very diffidence. Your own gentle concession that "it is a book of rare interest" you do not take seriously enough. The fact that the prototype of D'Arcy was one of Watts-Dunton's literary friends, Rossetti, is only an accident in respect of the genuine vitality of the book. It was George Eliot's boast that she wrote "not mere novels, but *books*." "Aylwin" is more than a novel. The central idea that love is stronger than death would in no time appear banal, but to an age of materialism and in the supreme beauty of "Aylwin" it comes as an evangel. Before publication Mr. Watts-Dunton himself predicted that for every immediate reader of the book fifty would welcome it fifty years hence. But it is not the author's own conviction as to the enduring quality of his work that makes a prophecy regarding its future valid. When a public continues to call for a book after sixteen years in which editions have multiplied (the latest appeared in the present year), is not the venture that he will be remembered "chiefly on account of his literary friendships" somewhat miscalculated?

MARTIN M. POST,
Classical High School.

Worcester, Massachusetts.

### THE INDIANA PROGRESSIVES

Your number of May 2 states that the Indiana Progressive platform declared for the recall of judges and for State prohibition. These statements are mistaken. The platform declared for "the recall of all elective executive, administrative, and legislative officers." The word elective modifies executive, administrative, and legislative, and is not equal with them. The platform favors giving the people of the State the chance to vote on State prohibition and the Hobson amendment. It does not commit the party to the support and advocacy of prohibition. In fact, a majority of the Resolutions Committee were opposed to a declaration for prohibition and after a hard fight won their point.

EDWARD R. LEWIS.

[It is only fair to say that several printed reports of the Convention containing the platform showed a comma after the word "elective," and this misled us. With regard to the other matter, the first reports of the Convention were to the effect that it favored the demand for the adoption of a National prohibition amendment. And it was known that there was a strong movement in Indiana to this end. As it turned out, the Progressive party in Indiana took the more judicial attitude of merely supporting a proposal for a referendum of the subject. The declaration for submission cannot, of course, be treated as identical with a demand for prohibition itself. —THE EDITORS.]

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# BY THE WAY

Twenty-five Sons of the American Revolution have made a pilgrimage in automobiles from Philadelphia to Cambridge, Massachusetts, retracing the exact route traversed by Washington, June 23 to July 3, 1775, when he went to Cambridge to take command of the Continental army.

The bark Platina, one of the last of the old New Bedford whalers, was recently broken up for firewood. She was, according to "Shipping Illustrated," the only vessel that ever captured a white whale. Other "sperm whales of great age have been taken that were spotted with white, but the Platina's whale was pure white from head to tail."

Cyril Arthur Pearson, says the London correspondent of the "American Printer," won a prize offered by Sir George Newnes in the form of a position in his "Tid-Bits" office. He soon left and started "Pearson's Magazine," later the "Daily Express," then bought the "Standard," and nearly became the chief owner of the "Times." Now, in mid-life and mid-career, he has been stricken with blindness. This has caused him to devote much time to work for the blind. He is now raising money for a fine printing plant to be put into the new building of the National Institution for the Blind.

A book called "The Profitable Wage," by Edward E. Sheasgreen, contains this statement, which should set many people to thinking: "In 365 days there are (twenty-four hours to the day) 8,670 hours. The church is open on an average of 600 hours a year, the schools about 1,900 hours, the average factory about 2,400 hours, and the average business concern about 2,800 hours, while the saloon and other like resorts are open about 4,725 hours."

The phrase "horse sense" was discussed in class, and the teacher told one of the boys to write a sentence containing that phrase. The boy labored for ten minutes and produced this: "My father didn't lock the barn door, and he ain't seen the horse sense."

Plans to restock completely all trout streams and lakes throughout the National Forests of Colorado, Wyoming, and South Dakota, within a period of nine years, are well under way, as the result of the approval by the Federal Bureau of Fisheries of a plan of operation prepared by the Forest Service. The estimates are said to cover 273 streams and lakes in the three States.

An officer in Luzon, says the "Youth's Companion," received a fine watermelon from America as a present. He invited several friends to dinner, the watermelon to be the crowning glory of the feast. The Filipino cook, as a final course, brought on the melon on an immense platter—not iced, alas! but boiled, thoroughly boiled! The American officer, in his turn, boiled—boiled over, and, says the "Companion," convinced the cook, with the aid of a carving-knife, that a leap through the window would be necessary to save his skin. The officer has not been able to smile about that watermelon yet.

Wagner is still the favorite composer of the world of opera-goers. The great German heads the list in the number of performances at the Metropolitan Opera-House, New York City, at the Opera-House in Paris, and at the principal opera-houses in Italy.

The old French hardware lasted well, according to Mildred Stapley in "The House Beautiful." The steel *crémones* (or bolts running lengthwise of a casement window) on the east casements of the Louvre "work as well to-day as when Charles IX opened one of them to give the signal for the massacre of St. Bartholomew." American firms, says the writer, are now manufacturing these bolts, but the purchaser must look to the mechanism of the pin that turns the bolt, for on it depends the durability of the fastening.

The latest "Dramatist" would be agreeable reading for Mr. George Bernard Shaw. It calls "Othello" an "unmotivated tragedy" that is "not a sound example of play construction measured on modern lines," and predicts that "in the very near future modern revisions of his [Shakespeare's] plays will be made to meet the demands of modern stage and modern audience." "Don't hesitate to better Shakespeare," says the "Dramatist" in conclusion. This is "the only practice that will instill courage for the great dramatic age to come."

The late W. S. Gilbert, says the Boston "Transcript," was lunching at a country hotel, when he found himself in company with three cycling clergymen, by whom he was drawn into conversation. When they discovered who he was, one of the party asked Mr. Gilbert how he felt "in such a grave and reverend company." "I feel," said Mr. Gilbert, "like a lion in a den of Daniels."

An English railway, the South-Eastern and Chatham, has recently put in use five locomotives "made in Germany." An Outlook subscriber writes that at a fair in France he bought what he supposed was an ingenious French mechanical toy. On examining it carefully, however, he found in an inconspicuous place the familiar legend "Made in Germany." Commerce, it is good to believe, knows no racial antipathies.



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